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ABSTRACT

Papers submitted to NATCON 1997 are: (1) "Athabasca University Certificate in Career Development: Innovative Collaboration" (J. Baty, B. Hiebert, G. Peruniak, D. Welch); (2) "A Multigenerational Approach to Career Counseling" (C. McCarty); (3) "Becoming Self-Directed: The Importance of Values Assessment" (C. E. Mossop); (4) "Building New Employment Relations" (K. Calvert, M. Jensen); (5) "Career-Counselling University Students with Learning Disabilities" (B. A. Symes); (6) "Career Planning with Adult Daughters of Alcoholics" (A. B. Nyiri); (7) "Conquering Interview Anxiety" (F. Cheek); (8) "Creativity as a Core Competency" (S. Murphy, T. Murphy); (9) "Ethics and Issues in Career Counselling" (J. B. Stewart); (10) "Helping People Who Hate Their Jobs" (G. Dutch); (11) "Informed-Choice Counselling: The Key to Success in Training" (L. Willis, J. Baty, J. Bain, L Harris); (12) "Kegan's Constructive Developmental Framework for Adult Careers Transition" (A. Marshall); (13) "Laid Off--Then What? Effective Strategies for Career Renewal" (R. Neault); (14) "The Workability Handbook" (D. Nedekopp, C. Crickmore); (15) "Le mentorat de personnes retraitees pour l'exploration professionnelle au secondaire" (P. Dupont, M. Blain); (16) "Les pratiques d'employabilite: entre le prescrit et le reel" (C. Leclerc, B. Bourassa, M.-F. Maranda, Y. Comeau); (17) "Les Technologies de l'information dans le contexte du counselling d'emploi" (M. Turcotte); (18) "Lifelong Learning and Career Development: The Need for a Learner-Centered Approach" (M. Ogisu-Kamiya); (19) "L'implication des partenaires dans le retour en formation des adultes" (M. Tardif, G. Debeurme, F. Serre); (21) "Management and Organizational Trends: Friend or Foe?" (J. Asgar, D. Wigley); (20) "Men and Work" (H. Deutschendorf); (22) "Motivation et orientation: un but significatif" (M. Gingras, D. Chagnon); (23) "New Measures of Social Economic Value: Community-Based Training Report" (B. J. Richmond); (24) "Outreaching with the Employment Solution" (P. L. Giacomoni); (25) "Plan Your Work; Work Your Plan: A Practice Career-Management Strategy" (M. C. Thompson); (26)

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Foreword

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Avertissement *(In English on page vii)*

Les textes publiés dans *NATCON Papers 1997 Les actes du CONAT* reflètent le point de vue personnel des auteurs. Ceux-ci assument l'entière responsabilité de l'exactitude de la bibliographie, des citations, des tableaux et des schémas. Le cas échéant, les auteurs auront obtenu le droit de reproduction.

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Preface

(En français à la page xiii)

Once again we are most fortunate in the quality of the papers submitted to NATCON Papers 1997 Les actes du CONAT. *The papers represent the diversity and richness of the presentations made at the National Consultation on Career Development (NATCON). Through the papers, the essence of the presentations is captured and shared with delegates, as well as colleagues who were unable to attend. Communicating about our experiences, research, developments, and discoveries on national and international levels is critical to enhancing the work we do.*

NATCON Papers 1997 Les actes du CONAT *is distributed to all delegates who attended NATCON 1997, and will join previous volumes on the shelves of career and employment counsellors across the country, as well as the National Library of Canada.*

NATCON is co-sponsored by The Counselling Foundation of Canada, Human Resources Development Canada, and the Career Centre of the University of Toronto.

I would like to take this opportunity on your behalf to thank my University of Toronto colleagues Lou Hawkes, Hélène Suzin, Angela Sidoriak, and Geneviève Beaupré. Their solid administrative and organizational work, coupled with an excellent program, make NATCON one of the finest career-development conferences in the world.

NATCON 1998 will be here before we know it and we look forward to your joining us in Ottawa, 26–28 January 1998. When you receive your information in the fall, please share it with your colleagues. Encourage them to join you at NATCON 1998 for what promises to be an excellent conference.

Marilyn Van Norman
Director, Student Services
University of Toronto

Préface *(In English on page xi)*

Encore une fois, nous avons été choyés par la qualité des textes soumis en vue de la publication de NATCON Papers 1997 Les actes du CONAT. *Ces textes représentent la diversité et l'étendue des sujets qui sont présentés au Colloque national touchant le développement de carrière (CONAT) et permettent de communiquer, tant aux participants qu'à nos collègues qui n'ont pu y assister, l'essentiel des présentations qui ont eu lieu. Il est en effet primordial pour notre travail de faire part de nos expériences, recherches, progrès et découvertes sur les plans national et international afin d'aller toujours de l'avant.*

Le livre NATCON Papers 1997 Les actes du CONAT *est distribué à tous les participants du CONAT 1997. Il se retrouvera avec les autres volumes publiés précédemment sur les rayons des bibliothèques des conseillers en orientation professionnelle et en emploi des quatre coins du pays. Il sera également déposé à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada.*

Le CONAT est parrainé conjointement par The Counselling Foundation of Canada, Développement des ressources humaines Canada et le Career Centre de la University of Toronto.

J'aimerais profiter de l'occasion pour remercier, en votre nom, mes collègues Lou Hawkes, Hélène Suzin, Angela Sidoriak et Geneviève Beaupré de la University of Toronto. Grâce à leur solide travail d'administration et d'organisation ainsi qu'à l'excellente qualité du programme présenté, le CONAT est devenu l'un des colloques en développement de carrière les plus renommés au monde.

Le CONAT 1998 arrive déjà à grands pas et promet d'être des plus intéressants. Nous espérons que vous serez des nôtres du 26 au 28 janvier 1998, à Ottawa. Vous recevrez le programme provisoire du colloque à l'automne. Faites-en part à vos collègues et invitez-les à se joindre à vous.

Marilyn Van Norman
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University of Toronto

Athabasca University certificate in career development: Innovative collaboration

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Introduction

In recent years, increasing numbers of Canadians have become more interested in their careers, and a multitude of people are now involved in the delivery of career development services. These service providers possess a wide range of formal training, from a two-year college certificate to a Ph.D. Some of them have career development as their main focus, while for others it is only part of their practice. Some are involved in direct services to clients, while others are involved in support roles, compiling labour market information or creating tools and resources for practitioners and clients. The result is a broad range of practitioners providing an equally broad range of services to an equally broad range of clients.

Given the range of service providers working in the field of career development, and their varied levels of formal education, it is not surprising that "need for training" has been identified by practitioners as an important issue (Conger, Hiebert, and Hong-Farrell 1994; Edmonton Career Practitioners Network 1995; Hiebert and Conger, in press).

Recognizing this need, Athabasca University (AU) and members of the Alberta Career Development Action Group have been working together to create a university credit certificate in career development. The certificate program will be at Athabasca University—a specialist in distance education. It will be a one-year certificate with full university credit, will use distance delivery methods, and will incorporate prior-learning assessment to acknowledge previous training and experience. Training programs now offered by the partners will be incorporated into the certificate program, and credit will be given for training programs that students have already completed. These developments will greatly increase access to career development training in a wide variety of settings.

This paper describes the nature of the certificate, along with a brief description of Athabasca University. It also describes the ways in which the certificate is innovative and how collaboration led to its development. The paper concludes with our perception of why this initiative is working.

Brief description of Athabasca University

Athabasca University is an open university that operates primarily, though not exclusively, through distance education. It is mainly an adult-oriented learning establishment whose development has been described

elsewhere (Byrne 1989; Hughes 1980). Since its beginning 25 years ago as Alberta's fourth university, AU has been dedicated to removing barriers to adult participation in education. The institution offers eight undergraduate degree programs and three graduate programs as well as a number of university certificates and diplomas. The university has a policy of continuous enrolment, and learners can enter programs at the beginning of any month. Furthermore, prospective learners can enrol in courses without the traditional entrance criteria of high-school matriculation. Naturally, however, they must still satisfy traditional criteria for graduation. Currently AU has about 11,000 students. Carefully designed, self-instructional materials are supplemented by a network of qualified instructors who provide individualized tutorials over the telephone and via the computer.

Over the years the university has been dedicated to an extensive coordination and consolidation of credit for learners who are transferring credit into the institution from other parts of the postsecondary system across Canada. This credit coordination service examines formal learning in an effort to be fair about its recognition. With the establishment of the Accreditation Centre this year, AU has also made a special commitment to the assessment of prior learning, particularly informal learning such as that acquired on the job.

Learner profile at AU

The following characteristics describe major features of the learner's profile at AU (Athabasca University 1996):

- mainly adults
- approximately 40% are rural based and 60% urban
- approximately 38% of learners are over 35 years
- about 35% of learners are aged 25–34 years
- about 28% are less than 25 years old
- females constitute about 67% of the enrolled learners, 33% male

The program

The university certificate in career development is intended primarily for practitioners who have some work experience in career development. The certificate will build on competence already developed through this field experience and further enhance the practitioner's effectiveness.

The university certificate in career development requires a total of 30 credits (15 of which must be completed with AU) as follows:

Core (required) courses (12 credits)

- CADE 300 Theories of Career Development (3 credits)
- CADE 301 Career Development Resources in the Changing Nature of Work (3 credits)
- CADE 400 Creating a Working Alliance (3 credits)
- PHIL 333 Professional Ethics (3 credits)

Elective courses (18 credits)

Learners choose 18 credits from the following list of 3-credit courses:

- COMM 377 Communication and Problem-Solving in Groups
- ENGL 306 The Literature of Work
- ORGB 390 Managing Change
- POLI 309 Canadian Government and Politics
- PSYC 343 Issues and Strategies in Counselling Women
- PSYC 356 Introduction to Personality Theories and Issues
- PSYC 381 Psychology of Adult Development
- PSYC 388 An Introduction to Counselling
- PSYC 401 Learning Through Life
- SOCI 300 Social Organization
- SOCI 312 Women and Work in Canada
- SOCI 321 Sociology of Work and Industry
- SOCI 329 Aging and You (I)—Introduction to Gerontology
- SOCI 330 Aging and You (II)—Introduction to Gerontology
- SOCI 380 Canadian Ethnic Studies

The Advisory Council for this certificate will regularly review the list of electives with a view to offering the best possible selection.

What is innovative about this initiative?

First, taff members at AU had been experimenting with prior learning assessment for 14 years, but nothing but a challenge exam policy had been forthcoming systematically. Therefore, this career development—certificate project became something of a flagship for AU's new Accreditation Centre with its mandate to provide prior learning assessment service throughout the university. The accreditation role of AU with its partners is illustrated in figure 1.

Second, on the other hand, practitioners were making a plea for certificate courses available at-a-distance for those who were unable to take advantage of a traditional university campus. This was part of the reason for the interest in becoming involved with AU.

Third, as part of the collaboration there was a need to bolster and extend program expertise at AU to others outside the institution. This was done with the establishment of the Advisory Council for the program. The

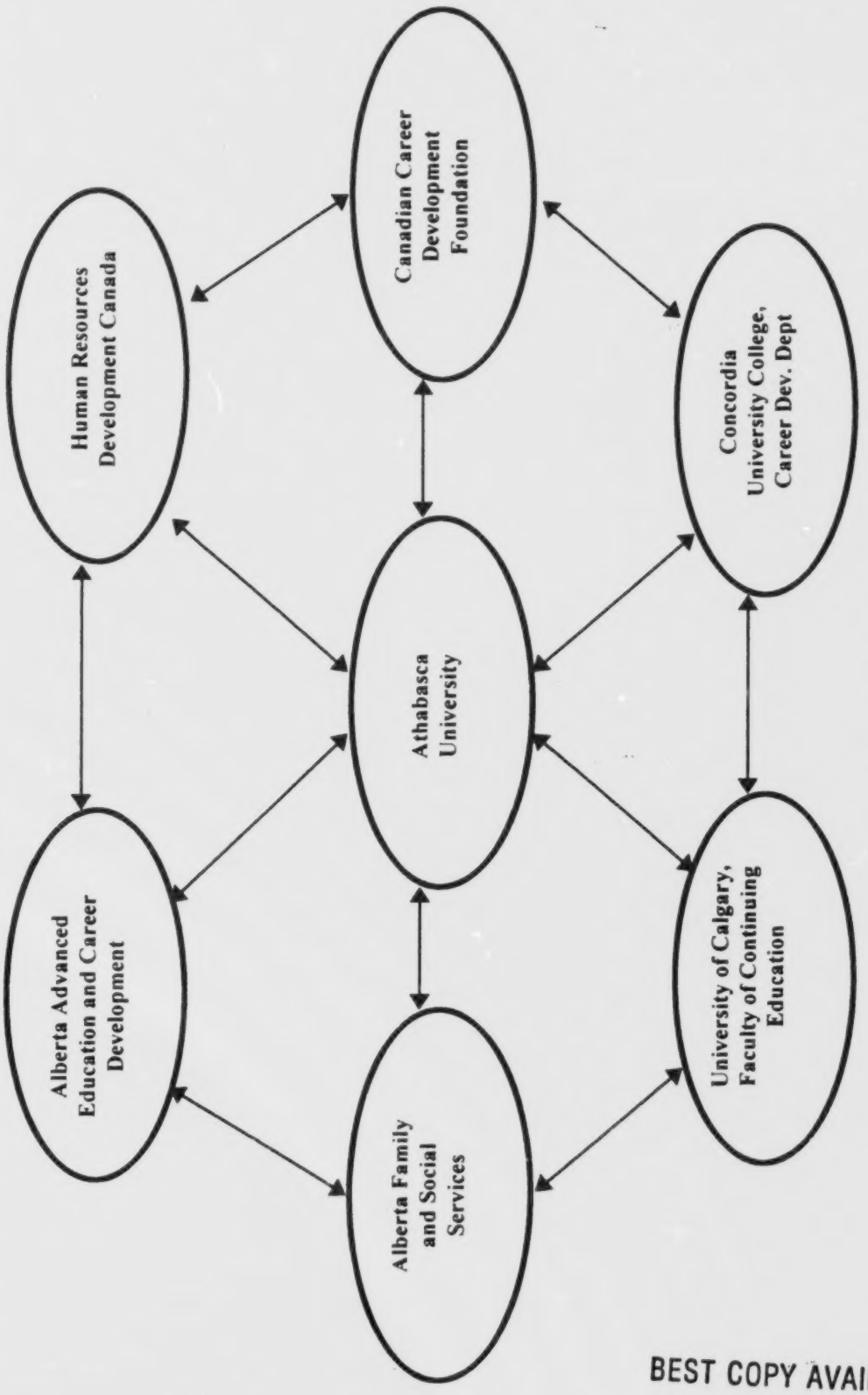
Human Resources Development Canada
Canadian Career Development Foundation
Concordia University College, Career Dev. Dept
Athabasca University
Alberta Advanced Education and Career Development
Alberta Family and Social Services
University of Calgary, Faculty of Continuing Education

Figure 1 Partners in the AU certificate in career development

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Advisory Council consists of a majority members outside the university. Changes to core program must be passed by the university's Academic Council, but changes in the electives can be made by the council.

Fourth, the theme of the certificate program is an inter-disciplinary thrust, in contrast to a concentration on counselling techniques and theories. The majority of electives and one core course were chosen from a variety in the liberal arts curriculum.

Innovative collaboration: The key to success

A central component in developing the Athabasca certificate in career development has been the collaboration of the partners in the Alberta Career Development Action Group. The Action Group was formed in 1994, following an exploratory meeting of people who had been developing resources, offering training, or coordinating the practice of career development in Alberta. The initial meeting was facilitated by the Canadian Career Development Foundation (then called the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Foundation). However, the Action Group has evolved into a collaboration involving representation from provincial and federal government departments, postsecondary institutions, service providers in the public and private sector, and practitioner groups representing counsellors, educators, and career practitioners. (See Shiell, Bezanson, and Hiebert 1996 for a more complete description of the Action Group.) The Action Group works by concensus, each member having an equal voice. No organization is asked to "play someone else's game," and the direction and action are determined by the group. Although the out-comes are sometimes unpredictable, the partners have a sense of ownership in what develops, and this helps everyone to be more willing to participate in any resulting action. The Advisory Council for the program is characterized by a collaborative spirit in which the main question people ask is "Can I live with this plan?" as opposed to "Is this the very best plan in the whole world for the group I represent?" Athabasca University has been committed to an inclusive approach, as has the council.

This collaboration between partners in developing of the certificate was key to ensuring its success. Several additional elements contributed to the collaboration. Many of the partners realized that there was a chance to develop a program in this area because of the composition of the council, the political climate of the province, and the economic climate in both the province and the country. Also, both explicit and implicit group norms were established to help develop the certificate program. In addition, there was a list of specific tasks that needed to be completed, and they acted as milestones for the process. Finally, while

the collaboration involved both costs and benefits in this case the benefits, to each partner were seen as clearly outweighing the costs.

Climate and conditions

Council members

As a result of their involvement in the Alberta Career Development Action Group, members of the group (known as the Council) who developed the certificate were already well known to each other, and trusted each other. Their trust had developed over time, by watching each other in action on various initiatives. In addition members had their own networks through which to check and crosscheck their perceptions of other members. In addition, the work on the certificate complemented other ongoing work in which the Action Group was engaged, particularly development of a set of competencies for career development professionals.

Political climate

There are many excellent agencies and private practitioners delivering career development counselling and other services in Alberta, but there is no consistent measure or standards to evaluate specific agencies or service deliverers. With government office closures and a trend towards reliance on contracted services (or a mix of in-house and contracted services) both federally and provincially, a recognized credential for service providers was seen as a benefit. The certificate would provide a way of demonstrating competence in the field. Concurrent with this increasing reliance on contracted out services, government staff were faced with the prospect of downsizing. The certificate would give them qualifications to take with them into the private sector, particularly if the departmental training they had received was recognized through prior-learning-assessment methods and available for transfer to the certificate program. Finally, there was a need to ensure that people were able to obtain and keep employment and that appropriate assistance was available to them in this endeavour.

Economic climate

The cutbacks faced by all levels of government made government departments and other organizations more willing to seek creative ways of working together. By working together and by sharing materials, training courses, and ideas, resources could be maximized. Without this economic impetus it is doubtful that the Council could have moved so quickly. The recognition that this opportunity could disappear at any moment added an extra incentive to progress quickly with developing the certificate.

Process

To support working together, the Council adhered to a set of both explicit and implicit agreements. As already described, a key agreement was the decision-making model. Decisions were made by consensus, and time was taken to ensure that each member could at least live with the decision. There was also explicit agreement to share training materials and packages free of charge to other Council members and to the cer-tificate program.

The work was carried out by the Council itself. Members of the Council were expected to contribute materials, resources, and their time, and to ensure that these were delivered on time. Major decisions taken by the Council included choice of the core courses of the certificate, selection subject matter that experts used to develop the core courses and to the facilitate prior learning assessment reviews.

In government, most energy for the establishment of the certificate came from nonmanagerial staff. Such Council members were at the headquarters or corporate level, and directly involved in the planning, administration, and delivery of staff training in their respective departments. All members ensured that they had the support of their management and kept managers informed of the Council's progress.

Milestones

Over a period of about a year the Council completed the following tasks:

- Determined program characteristics
- Identified core courses
- Identified options
- Developed course outlines for initial submission to Athabasca University Academic Council
- Developed business plan for submission to Athabasca University Academic Council
- Identified authors for core courses
- Identified experts on subject matter for Human Resources Development Canada to evaluate

The following chart outlines the time in which these and other milestones were reached or are planned for the future.

Figure 2 Athabasca University (AU) certificate in career development Important events

1. November 1994—exploratory meeting, Alberta Career Development Action Group (ACDAG) formed
2. February 1995—composition of ACDAG expanded, issues for ACDAG identified, plans begun for first Alberta Consultation on Career Development *(Building Tomorrow Today)*
3. May 1995—initial ACDAG working groups formed, initial discussions on AU certificate, proposals for access funding prepared by Athabasca University; Concordia University College, Career Development Department; University of Calgary
4. Fall 1995—Access proposals unsuccessful, initial meeting to explore alternative plans
5. January 1996—agreement on tentative structure of certificate
6. Spring 1996—preparation of background document, statement of need, core/electives for submission to AU Academic Council
7. June 1996—approval in principle from Athabasca University Academic Council
8. September 1996—approval to proceed with developing new core courses
9. October 1996—external review of Human Resources Development Canada courses for assigning course credit
10. February 1997—core courses completed and submitted for external review
11. Spring/summer 1997—external review of other partner courses for assigning course credit
12. Fall 1997—program opens for student enrollment

Factors leading to success

Relationships in the Action Group have been instrumental in sustaining momentum in this initiative. We have learned that it takes time to develop trust, obtain input from all positions, and make sure all parties have an opportunity to speak. But this time is an investment that pays large returns during the implementation of an initiative. We have learned that collaboration and conversion are not the same. The main purpose in collaboration is not to help everyone "see the light and do it my way." It is to examine all sides of the issue under scrutiny and chose the most workable compromise, the path that most people can live with. So a "new" initiative is not really new when it comes into being because people are already familiar with it, have had opportunity to shape its direction, see reasons it cannot be exactly the way they may have liked it, and are willing to live with the compromise.

Conclusion

From the preceding description it is clear that many factors have led to the creation of the Athabasca University certificate in career development. It has been a shared initiative, and this paper is a reflection of the partnership in action. We close by offering a final perspective on this initiative.

We would like to presume that in a curriculum for career development there is a basic concern with the development of the whole person, in the whole environment, for the whole of his or her life. The purpose of such a holistic outlook is to:

1. recognize that intelligent decisions and priorities require a comprehensive picture of constituent parts (e.g., unemployment cannot be understood solely as a psychological problem);
2. highlight relationships between disciplines and thus their distinctive contributions to career development;
3. underscore the integrity of the person as more than a collection of individual parts through a curriculum that is more than a fragmented collection of courses;
4. mitigate the effects of fragmentation and overspecialization;
5. promote a society that is critically reflective, socially responsive, and committed to an ongoing search for competence and wisdom.

It will be recognized that these are some of the goals of a liberal arts education. There is a sense in which career development is inextricably woven into every aspect of a person's being. Personal problems are also career development problems and every career problem has a personal component. Realizing this, more people are seeking assistance in managing their careers and more practitioners are offering career-related services. This is being done in a context where university training in career development is sparse and formal recognition of training in career development is limited. Realizing this vacuum, a partnership of universities, other postsecondary institutions, provincial and federal government departments, service providers in the public and private sector, and practitioner groups have created a unique educational opportunity for career development professionals in Canada that seriously addresses issues of access and openness. This paper has described the Athabasca University certificate in career development and its formation. It is our hope that this description will be of use to others in forging their own partnerships in their own locales.

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A multigenerational approach to career counseling

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Introduction

There are few pure styles exercised in counseling. Most of us use an eclectic approach rather than limit the help we give to our clients by stringently following one particular therapy. Our ways of helping overlap.

So do people overlap. They don't fit into tight little boxes marked traditionalists, the patriotic company-conscious 50-plussers born prior to 1946, or the 76 million baby boomers, the highly privileged workaholic generation born 1946–1964. Nor do they exactly fit the boxes of the mostly twentysomething baby busters/generation Xers, those environmental and energy conscious young people born 1965 through a 1976-plus range; and the boomlets, also known as the baby boom echo generation, tomorrow's computer-bred workforce still in our nation's schools.

Our clients are often career changers whether by choice or having it imposed upon them by downsizings and restructurings. It is of utmost necessity that counselors recognize the values, outlooks, strengths, and weaknesses of these people so that we might help them blend in and succeed in the working world of today.

Traditionalists

Let us begin looking at the traditionalists, the pre-boomers, the 50-plussers, the "bridge" or Eisenhower generation, also known in the work settings as "the disposable age," as they are given incentives to retire or are caught in the throes of downsizing. These people were born prior to 1946 and currently account for 26% of the U.S. population. By 2025, they will constitute only 4% of the population.

Traditionalists were born after the stock market crash of 1929 when panic selling wiped out the fortunes of thousands of investors. These traditionalist children were affected by parents who had experienced the Great Depression of the 1930s—the most severe economic reversal of the twentieth century, beginning in the United States and spreading abroad.

"It is critical to remember the dramatic effect the Depression had on this generation," says David Friedland, a Los Angeles industrial psychologist who specializes in human-resources consulting. The hardships these employees watched their parents battle in the 1930s heavily influenced their own values and outlook on work. "Jobs weren't easy to come by then, so you didn't just leave a company because you weren't

challenged or fulfilled, the way so many Boomers do now," says Friedland. After all, the radio babies (traditionalists) figure, jobs aren't meant to be enjoyable. They are simply a way to earn a living and support a family (Murphy 1991).

Non-professional traditionalists were able to enter the workforce straight from high school—a rare occurence today. Companies assumed the task of training workers for their jobs. Would-be professional traditionalists went to college which opened up the door to the jobs of their choice. The GI Bill provided opportunity to a whole new population who might never have considered the educational route before.

Traditionalists have been very loyal to their jobs. What they do or have done in the work world is a key part of their lives and identities. They often have stayed with the same company for a lifetime, leaving it for only very serious reasons. They believed in climbing straight, narrow career ladders and have been most comfortable with the pyramid hierarchies of the past.

Just as many of them are married to the company, traditionalists stay married and have had few divorces compared to other generation groups. Nor were they themselves children of divorce—a condition that affects more than half of today's children. They made do with one salary. They were eager to assume responsibilities such as marriage, children, and mortgages. Compared to the generations to come, they have lived a basically drug-free life.

Male traditionalists tend to eschew technological advances such as computers, fax machines, and E-mail. They still rely on newspapers and radios for most of their news. Status and security have been very important to this group, and so has community involvement. They truly believe that seniority and loyal service should be rewarded. That the companies have allowed this group to be turned out to pasture has been devastating to traditionalists. When they do find work opportunities or re-entry into the work world, their bosses and co-workers are often of different, much younger generational groups.

Female traditionalists have viewed employment as secondary to their spouse. For years, females of this group were taught that second jobs were unpatriotic because they took jobs away from returning servicemen and other men who needed to support families. Women were begged to enter the workforce during World War II, but the expectation was that they would leave it at the war's end. Many women refused to do so, when they found their world and family incomes expanding. However, for traditionalist females, the majority of jobs were found to

be in education, health, and office fields. Male traditionalists are still uncomfortable with taking directions from female colleagues.

Speaking from the corporate view, traditionalists are not technically adapted, and that matters. They find it hard to adjust to today's flatter organizational structures. Teamwork is new to them. In the past, they understood where they were placed in the pyramid structure. They are tied to retirement funds. They can't conceive of being in charge of their own health care plans. Most career experts say both of these issues will be out of the hands of corporations within ten years. In general, traditionalists are not too keen to go back to school at this stage in their lives. They fear having to prove themselves once again in learning the new skills demanded in their job world.

Because of advances in medicine, sixty-year-olds are not ready today for the rocking chair. When they are let go by their companies, they find themselves at loose ends. They have not learned to market themselves as younger generations do.

Dealing with older clients who are out of the workforce cyle is rising. They are truly suffering from burnout of unprofitable job seeking. We need tools to help them out of their ruts. We need to convince them to polish obsolete or missing computer skills, and certainly to work on their communication abilities.

Baby boomers

Baby boomers have been described as people born between 1946 and 1964 who went from "make love, not war" to "make money." The former flower children, wearing Dockers and ball caps instead of bell-bottoms and headbands, evolved first into yuppies and then into responsible adults. They traded in their VW bugs for Volvos and then mini-vans. Many of them are part of "the system" they once rejected; they are members of the generation who swore never to trust anyone over 30. Now they have children that old.

The youngest boomer is now 33. The oldest is 51. In 1998, the boomer generation will begin to shrink. But it has been said that even as the boomers' share starts to decline, their political and economic power will keep growing, and when they become truly old, they will still be on the leading edge, the first generation of "new elders."

Boomers grew up in the age of television. They fit into the electronic age. Boomers have been dominated by television and computers.

Boomers are in general not electronically skilled and often have technological access problems.

Boomers started their careers when all was very optimistic—a period of youthful hedonism in the '70s and early '80s. They felt it was their birthright to spend a lot of time on leisure pursuits, an attitude very different from their parents. Then boomers experienced a tight job market in the '70s and many developed a real sense of defeatism. A clinical psychologist in Portland, Oregon, commented, "Many Boomers have not had life experiences which bring suffering into their lives. It may be a surprise when they hit 40, 45, or 50 that everything is not in their control. A statistically significant rise in suicides is not unreasonable." (Johnston 1996).

The '60s left an indelible mark on this generation. In the work world, they have brought changes by introducing flextime, job sharing, and support for child and elder care. Some of these changes came about because boomer women were learning from buster women. Boomers have been more single-minded about their careers and have played down family responsibilities, often never admitting in initial job interviews that they ever planned to have children, and when actually pregnant took very little maternity leave.

Boomers are risk-takers. They prefer participatory management and teamwork rather than the old military-style corporate model. Michael Maccoby, author of *Why Work: Motivating and Leading the New Generation,* says "Baby Boomers want the work place to be warm and fuzzy." (Murphy 1991). They don't mind emotional involvement with co-workers. Rather than have loyalty to the company dictate their work, they seek personal growth and meaningful experience. Boomers early on had been workaholics. Finally as the years went by, they seemed to have realized that they need time for their personal lives.

As individuals, most boomers struggle from paycheck to paycheck and save very little, even when there are two breadwinners (Johnston 1996). Because boomer retirees will be the largest and longest-living group ever, and because Social Security and Medicare help is fading for this group, there is a rise in national concern from the groups following behind them.

Baby busters

The busters are called many names: Generation X, Yiffies, WIGGERS, or the Repair Generation. They are a posttelevision generation. But all

these names refer to the twentysomething generation who came of age during the 1980s, and who now preoccupy the media as the boomers did before them.

Busters will live between two demographic peaks for the rest of their lives: boomers, and boomer children called boomlets. For two decades they've been an overlooked generation sandwiched between the massive baby boom and the still-growing ranks of baby boomers' children. However, busters will continue to gain members through immigration well past the turn of the century.

They are America's new poor, with low wages, facing a bankrupt economy and medical bills of an aging population. Because parents can live long enough today to exhaust their savings, this young generation will not be receiving fat inheritances. Despite the fact that housing and mortgages rates have fallen, few busters as yet own homes (Mahar 1994).

They have been described as more cynical than previous generations. At times this group seems less directed. There is temptation to move laterally, trying out different options rather than advancing or specializing in one area of expertise.

Busters have been disillusioned. They were reared by idealistic parents who told them to prepare well for the job market. They were encouraged to study hard, and rewards would come. Yet by the time the busters reached the job market, the companies were downsizing and rapidly undergoing change, and the salary offerings were paltry. The job market they have encountered is one in which 22% of employed Americans are either part-time or temporary workers—the highest population ever.

Like members of any generation, busters are shaped by their experiences. They witnessed Wall Street scandals and massive corporate layoffs (Dunn 1992). Claire Rainer, a Denver-based management consultant and co-author of *Twentysomething: Managing and Motivating Today's New Work Force,* writes, "Generations are motivated by what they were deprived of when they were kids, and for this generation, that was time with their parents" (Kruger 1994). The busters are different in significant ways from the generations that came before them. One is that there are so many fewer of them. This group is roughly half the size of the boomers.

Because the downsizing of corporate America means that there must be different rewards for work, an employer can no longer promise rapid advancement and swift salary increases (Solomon 1992). Busters are willing to entertain different definitions of success. It is hard for the

traditionalists and the boomers to recognize and accept that the workplace isn't what it was ten years ago.

Murphy points out that the busters are the first generation to grow up in dual-wage-earning families or in single parent families as children of divorce. They are products of nursery day care and are accustomed to being on their own. Often they have been latchkey children.

They want and demand autonomy on the job. They are not as intimidated by authority figures as the generations before them. They are more comfortable with women in leadership roles because most of their mothers worked outside the home. "They can't imagine life without choices and that attitude carries over into the office," states Kanin-Lovers (Murphy 1991).

Buster women in their 20s are more likely to have been raised by working mothers. There is a gap between buster and boomer women. While boomers had to fight for access to the working world, busters were practically weaned on the idea of sexual equality. Buster women view boomer women who have made it to the top as role models to avoid, not emulate—women in their 30s who have the jobs, the cars, and condos, and all they really want is to get married and have children. Buster women are preoccupied with how boomer women mismanaged their personal lives and how—and if—they will do it better (Kruger 1994). Faith Wohl, director of the Office of Workplace Initiatives at the U.S. General Services Administration, adds, "Women in their 20s are looking at the failed Superwomen. They're revolting against the mindless careerism they saw their sisters or mothers have" (Krugger 1994).

Busters are far more sophisticated about the media than boomers will ever be. Busters became media connoisseurs, browsing the electronic landscape and selecting programs to tape to view outside the time constraints of their job. This is the first generation with a built-in ability to maneuver on the information highway.

Richie (1995) talks about boomers and traditionalists perceiving technology as dehumanizing, too big, and too mechanized to deal with; however, the busters have quietly found ways to personalize technology as it develops.

A problem facing busters is Social Security. When the boomers begin retiring soon after the year 2010, the number of buster workers per retiree will fall dramatically. Busters will have to contribute a much higher percentage of their wages in order to maintain benefit levels.

Boomer retirement, though, will help the busters. With the large number of boomers who will retire approximately at the same time, there will be large numbers of job vacancies that need filling, and the busters—though getting a slow start in their 20s—will find the mid to late thirties quite rewarding.

The busters will wield less political clout due to the smaller size of the group and the potential number of votes than any other group. It is predicted that the busters will experience tax hikes during their prime working years only to see their benefits cut upon retirement.

Baby boomlets

Boomers and busters will soon lose share of population to the youngest generation of all—to the baby boomlet that began in 1977, says Diane Crispell of American Demographics (September 1993).

Numbers of the new boomlet generation will exceed the vast group of boomers. They, too, will greatly influence markets, attitudes, and society. Yet Mitchell (1995) points out that the boomlets differ in many ways, and that if one word is to describe them, it is *diverse*. Their habits and choices will affect market conditions in this country for most of the 21st century.

There are and will be children of mixed race in every classroom. Children of black and white parents make up the largest group, but are closely followed by children of white and Asian parents (Mitchell 1995). This will lead to more inter-racial interaction.

What the children do seem to share is a lack of a father living in the home. This is especially true of black children. Many children today live with their grandparents for economic reasons. Sometimes one parent is there, or both; sometimes no parents live there. Because they are children of divorce themselves, this may mean either that they will work harder to preserve their own future marriages or they will avoid early marriages.

The boomlets are divided into haves and have-nots according to their access to technology and the ability to build important skills early in life, says Mitchell. The poor are the least likely to have access to up-to-date technology.

In the U.S. last year, the purchase of personal computers equaled the sale volume of television sets. Boomlet children are being exposed to

computers as entertainment and as part of their school life, from preschool days onward. It is this coming labor force of the future that will be absolutely awesome in its use of computers. The boomers used computers in elementary ways. The busters make things happen with their computers.

Conclusion

I would have you examine and weigh your own propensities that are traditionalist, baby boomer, baby buster/generation Xer, or baby boomlet in nature, thus understanding the unique mixture of the age that resides within you and perhaps leading you to a better understanding of your clients.

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Becoming self-directed: The importance of values assessment

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Becoming self-directed: The importance of values assessment

Worldwide, our workplaces are undergoing the single most significant change since the industrial revolution: the end of employers as life-long work providers, and the subsequent rise of self-directed employees. The Valuescards™ assist people to successfully manage these changes by first helping them to identify and understand the fundamental reasons behind their career decisions, and then to apply this information in effectively managing their careers and personal lives.

Adults facing change struggle with four significant issues related to value factors.

1. Why me?
2. How do I quickly integrate my values into making decisions about my life and career?
3. How do I determine what's really important when I attempt to balance my live and my work?
4. How do I identify organizational values and judge their compatibility with mine?
5. How do I make these values into practice?

From the organization's perspective, there are equally compelling issues.

1. How do we objectively determine a person's fit within the organization?
2. How can we match the needs and values of individuals to those of the organization?
3. How can we foster the development of self-directed employees who will help us meet current and future needs of the organization?
4. How can we help clients have a meaningful insight into their life decisions?

Historically, language has been the key barrier to understanding the congruence between personal and organizational values. The Canadian-developed, bilingual (French/English, Dutch/English), Valuescards™ facilitate the process by clearly defining key personal values and identifying the corresponding organizational values.

Materials

Participants in this session will use the Valuescards™ to determine their own values and work through exercises to determine their fit within their organizations, as a demonstration of how to use this tool with clients. Each deck has 54 cards, and worksheets for sorting personal values and organizational values. Facilitators may purchase the *Facilitator's Guide*, which includes examples, timing for delivery, and

valuable insights. The Valuescards™ and worksheets are available in Dutch, French, and English, and the *Facilitator's Guide* in English and French.

Competency areas addressed

1. Consulting with organizational clients—for consultants practising strategic planning, and involved in competency profiling, conflict resolution, and team building
2. Consulting with candidates
3. Assessment
4. Career planning

Key learning objectives

1. Values are the cornerstone to self-understanding.
2. Most decisions an individual makes about career and life are based on values.
3. Values are directly relationed to attitudes, beliefs, needs, and behaviour.
4. Consultants will be able to draw the important links between individual and organizational values to better understand the issues of fit and value congruence.

Are you a noun or a verb?

Think about it—how do you respond when someone asks, "What do you do?" Do you describe yourself as a consultant, or do you provide advice and insight for a client group solving problem? Are you a manager or do you run the human resources department? Are you a computer programmer or do you produce the company's sales reports?

Ask different people what they do. Chances are that the people who most enjoy their work and do it well, will reply using verbs—they tell you what they *do* rather than give you a *job title*. Ask a few more questions and you'll likely discover that these people have well-rounded lives as well.

Example

Cathy was looking for a full-time job and was keeping her spirits up by pursuing several leisure activities—hiking, music, and hunting for antiques. While rafting down the Colorado River, she met someone who offered her a job—working with the rafting company part of the year—which fit in with working the rest of the year at her other passion—a small antique business. Her background was marine biology.

Following the expectations of her profession, she had searched for a job as a marine biologist. The paradox was that her education and degree did not fit with her values, needs, and behaviours.

Cathy's experience is typical of how individuals respond to the renaissance in our workplace. This is the most significant transition our workplace has seen since the rise of the industrial revolution. We are experiencing a cultural shift from the expectation of "having a job" to "doing work that needs to be done."

To borrow from a familiar refrain, "for better for worse for richer for poorer"—the employment relationship before the '90s was "to be a loyal servant, for profitability or not, in downsizing or not, 'till retirement do us part." As we approach the 21st century, it is being replaced with "to work together, as long as it lasts, or as long as we are both gaining from the relationship, or as long as we wish to contribute value, have some fun, and be part of something."

In the workshop, I describe why I developed the Valuescards™ and the principle underlying their development, and then you will have an opportunity to experience the tool. Career-transition consultants often have the following experience when consulting with a client. I am called to a termination meeting to coach a manager who will be providing the notification. As we go along, I ask why William's employment is being terminated. I am given a long involved story about how William doesn't understand the manager's needs and priorities, how his style grates on his nerves, how he doesn't fit the direction of the organization, and how in reality this should have happened five years ago. There have always been minor performance problems, but not enough to terminate his employment for cause—he has had run-in's with several of his co-workers, and he doesn't seem to embody the vision of the organization.

What the manager is trying to describe is a *fit issue* or the conflict between the employee's values with those of the organization—the most common reason for people to be dismissed.

As a transition client, William described how his values and the values of the organization were no longer congruent, how he finally reached the point where he felt no personal satisfaction. The result was that, no matter how competent he was, it would never be good enough for his manager, and the result was William's dismissal.

You may find, as I do, that it is relatively easy for the counsellor to determine a number of values-based reasons for a candidate's dismissal. However, this is irrelevant—it is the candidate who must begin to understand the reasons for the dismissal.

It was from this perspective that I began to focus on the issue of values assessment, the congruence of personal with organizational values, and their influence on career decision-making. From the career-transition

consultants' perspective there are four significant questions our clients ask that are related to values:

1. How do I smoothly integrate my values into making career and life decisions? And, in a job loss, Why me?
2. How do I determine what values are really important in my life, and what a balanced life is for me?
3. How do I identify organizational values and assess their compatibility with mine?
4. When faced with a career transition, how do I deal with the sense of being *out of sync* with my values?

For those of you who are also consulting with organizations, there are values issues that are equally compelling.

1. How to objectively determine a person's fit within the organization.
2. How to match the needs and values of individuals with those of the organization.
3. How to foster the development of an organization that values self-directed employees who will help meet current and future organizational needs.

Valuescards™ help our clients identify their core personal values, supporting behaviours, attitudes, and beliefs, and link them to organizational values.

Through my work with people in transition and in organizations, we have determined there are two types of values that are relevant in the workplace: guiding and practical values. The distinction between the two is important when people have difficulty in clearly determining and stating what is important to them when deciding about their careers.

Playout the following scenario

I ask my client, "What are your values that influence your career decisions?"

The client answers, "I don't know." But client is really thinking, Why is this lady asking me this question! I don't even want to think of the answer, and besides, how relevant is that to getting a job anyway? Now she has made me angry. I think I won't come back.

The client continues, Oh..., yes,... family, yes, family is important."

Values play a key role in establishing and maintaining our sense of identity and in how we meet our day to day needs. In our everyday life, we don't spend much time thinking about or being aware of our values. We quickly become aware of our values when something happens that violates them, such as when our boss asks us to lie to a customer or we see a co-worker stealing.

Values also affect our everyday relationships. For example, if we value intelligence and creativity, we may feel angry and impatient with a co-worker who does not display the same characteristics. In most cases we are not even aware of why we have these feelings.

The goal is not to try to change your values, but rather to help you understand the importance of values as the essential point to begin planning life and career.

The Valuescards™ approach takes into consideration both guiding and practical values. Guiding values are the higher order values that set the standards by which we live our lives. The practical values influence behaving and how we make decisions and choices about work, family involvement, and lifestyle. Practical values directly affect behaviours in everyday life and lead to actions to get you to where you would like to be in life.

By using the Valuescards™—an easy-to-use, non-threatening self-assessment tool—the client has easy access to information critical to making knowledgeable decisions about live and career. The client can easily validate the information by using the worksheets provided or with the assistance of a career coach. The client can then establish what is necessary for personal satisfaction, and the criteria to determine if a company job will support or hinder self-satisfaction.

(Exercises are done during the session.)

Closing remarks

New behaviours will persist only if they are linked with personal values. What requires new behaviours is catalytic change. If there is no change, the result will be open resistance.

It is a difficult and time-consuming process for our clients to review, assess, and validate their values, behaviours, attitudes, and beliefs. In career transitions and life planning, values assessment is the foundation upon which all decisions are made and experiences of self-satisfaction are based. It takes a highly skilled facilitator to help a client process this information, yet it is one of the most valuable aspects of career development.

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Building new employment relations

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Building new employment relations

Downsizing, rightsizing, restructuring, and reengineering are only four of the terms used to describe the reality of staff layoffs. Whatever the label, reducing staff is always painful. The consequences for both the laid-off and those who remain are enormous. The effects on the organization can be long lasting. However, the opportunities for individuals faced with such job changes can result in personal growth and less dependency on a single employer. The changes in the work realities are both frightening and exciting as we move towards the next millenium.

Persons who are terminated are likely to feel angry, shocked, and unfairly treated. Some may experience relief, because they knew or expected that cuts were coming, and now they have an opportunity to get on with their lives. Whatever the individual reactions, there are likely supports, services, and monetary packages that the organization makes available to assist in the transition to another job, further education, or full or partial retirement. After the inevitable initial reactions and readjustment, often comes the realization that there are possibilities and opportunities beyond the former employment.

Those who remain are frightened (What if it had been me?), shocked (How could my organization do such a terrible thing?), and feeling unfairly treated (How will we ever get the work done with so many fewer people?). If the layoffs were indiscriminate, random, or improperly planned and communicated, reactions will be more intense and long lasting.

Very few organizations or individuals have experience and expertise in managing the survivors of a downsizing or reorganization. Communication is critical to a successful downsizing. The people who remain need information about what is happening to "their" company. They need support, understanding, and honesty. They do not need false hope or reassurances. To suggest that there will be no further layoffs in order to make people feel better is offering false hope. And more important, the promise of job security increases the risk of continuing dependency on the current employer. The reality is that employers can no longer afford to have employees dependent on them, and employees need to learn to take responsibility for themselves. Downsizing, if managed well, can provide an opportunity to break the "ties that bind."

Remainers need time to release their feelings about what has happened. Unless these feelings are dealt with, they have the potential to interfere with the health of the individual and organization for a long time. Remainers need time to understand and accept the new work reality. A huge paradigm shift is necessary. Remainers, as with all workers, can

no longer expect to draw their primary identity from their place of employment. The feeling of belonging to an organization is gone. Instead, there is growing recognition that there will be many places of employment during a work life. According to Stats Canada two-thirds of the jobs created in 1994 lasted less than one year. Self-employment is on the increase. Upwards of 16% of the Canadian labour force work for themselves, an increase of 155,000 from one year earlier (The Royal Bank 1966).

Personal and financial security will be achieved by having skills, crafts, or services that can be rented out. The golden handcuffs—benefit plans, pension, etc., that once tied an individual to an organization—are disappearing. Individuals are taking responsibility for their own financial futures and health-care needs. Outsourcing, contract work, and contingent workers are at the centre of a radically changing relationship between companies and individual workers.

Transition is difficult. Leaving the old ways and embracing the new employer-employee relationships is not easy. Organizations and individual employees will likely need assistance in loosening the bonds that wrapped too tightly. Organizations may need support as they respond to the challenges of being profitable while paying attention to their most valuable resource—the people they hire to make the company profitable. Individual workers, whether downsized and starting again, the remainers, or the new contingent worker may need help in learning the ways to flourish and grow in the changed work environment.

It is okay, indeed wise, to get assistance with the planning, doing, and follow-up that must happen as new employment relations are forged.

Career-counselling university students with learning disabilities

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Introduction

Increasing numbers of learning-disabled (LD) high school students are choosing to continue their education at college or university (Astin et al. 1988; Taves and Hutchinson 1993). Statistics indicate that in 1986 over 230,000 college and university freshmen in the United States identified themselves as learning disabled (Fishlock 1987; Hoy and Gregg 1986). Individuals with learning disabilities require support as they make the transition from the security of their high school environment to the unfamiliar postsecondary institutions in which they become enrolled. Unfortunately, the needs of the learning disabled are often overlooked, and many are forced to deal with difficult issues without necessary support (Sitlington and Frank 1990). For example, LD students are often socially unprepared for the demands that are placed upon them during their first and subsequent years away from home (Rothenberg, Franzblau, and Geer 1979). Academically, LD students frequently do not possess adequate time-management skills, study skills, reading skills, or test-taking strategies that may influence their success at postsecondary institutions (McWhirter and McWhirter 1990).

Initially, discussion will focus on the characteristics of the learning disabled. Secondly, exploration of the primary issues that confront LD college and university students will be presented, along with possible strategies and necessary services aimed at facilitating the transition from high school to postsecondary settings. The goal of this paper is to increase sensivity to the needs of LD students and to provide guidance for the development of college and university programs that enhance and expand career choices for the learning disabled.

Learning disabilities defined

Learning disabilities take many forms and exist to varying degrees. Often individuals experience difficulties speaking, reading, writing, reasoning, and working with mathematics (National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities 1988; as cited in Hammill 1990). These problems are attributed to dysfunction of the central nervous system and may also be accompanied by inappropriate self-regulatory behaviours, social interactions, and underdeveloped social perceptions. Learning disabilities often negatively affect an individual's educational aspirations, self-esteem, socialization, and daily living activities (Association for Children with Learning Disabilities 1986; as cited in Hammill 1990). Children and youths with learning disabilities are frequently alienated by their peers with the result that there is often prolonged dependency upon parents and family members (Reekie 1993).

Learning-disabled college and university students encounter numerous learning problems characterized by academic underachievement, poor time management, difficulty with task completion, and insufficient note-taking and organizational skills (Kahn 1980). Additional behavioural characteristics include poor attention span, significant differences in oral and written abilities, overactivity or underactivity, and distractibility. Language difficulties are predominantly exhibited through the use of simplistic sentence structure and vocabulary along with frequent forgetting, confusion, or misarticulation of words. Motor coordination is often impaired and is demonstrated in clumsiness, such as in walking and running, sloppiness, and disorganization. Hand gestures are often nonexistent while disorganized thoughts and difficulty discriminating between left and right is commonly observed.

Kahn (1980) also identifies several visual deficiencies common among LD individuals. These visual impairments often inhibit performance of tasks such as taking examinations, perceiving and interpreting pictures and graphs, oral and silent reading, and printing, writing, or drawing. Reading difficulties, including slowness, mispronunciation, substitutions, and omissions, translate into poor comprehension.

Auditory impediments, according to Kahn (1980), may also restrict an individual's ability to learn. Students frequently demonstrate limited vocabulary, awkward articulation, enunciation, and grammar. Frequent misunderstanding of explicit instructions, daydreaming, blank facial expressions, and distractibility are further characteristics that LD students may display.

Programs and support services

Students with learning disabilities require support in making the transition from high school to college or university. Special education departments, academic advisors, professors, instructors, and counsellors play an important and indispensable role in that transition. Siperstein (1988) discusses several essential characteristics of effective programs that focus on the special needs of learning-disabled students. First, special education programs help to familiarize students with the procedures and functions of the college or university. Keys to the needs of the learning disabled ared the identification and description of services that are available to them and the effective delivery of support services provided directly by the special education program.

Second, development and scheduling of social-functioning and compensatory-skill workshops provide essential instruction for LD

students in areas in which they characteristically lack skill and confidence. Such workshops may deal with issues such as assertiveness, self-image, management of stress, study, and social skills. Third, successful programs support students and promote student initiated projects such as academic, social, and cultural activities. Networking among students with disabilities provides cohesion and improves the effectiveness and efficiency of services offered for these individuals. Finally, awareness workshops for faculty members is extremely important, because they disseminate information about learning disabilities and programs that are for the benefit of both staff and students.

Faculty responsibilities

Faculty members and administrators have the responsibility to acquire appropriate information about learning disabilities often confronted in a postsecondary academic setting such as a university or college (McWhirter and McWhirter 1990). This information is often transmitted during faculty meetings and workshops organized by the special education program at various institutions. Siperstein (1988) suggests faculty awareness workshops should: (1) educate faculty members, administrators, and staff about the mandate of the special education program; (2) discuss and explain the types of learning disabilities; (3) explain how students should be accommodated without being singled out and stigmatized; (4) clarify responsibilities the student should uphold; and (5) delineate the process and guidelines for making referrals to other agencies and services available at the university and within the broader community. Supportive and informed faculty help decrease anxiety and frustration experienced by apprehensive LD students in search of alternative accommodations (Siperstein 1988).

Haehl (1989) cites several creative ways professors and instructors can accommodate the special needs of the learning disabled including: (1) flexible deadlines for papers and assignments; (2) extra time to complete exams; (3) permission for students to photocopy instructors' lecture notes; (4) allowance for verbal responses to exam questions; and (5) methods of testing that include alternative formats and styles of response.

McWhirter and McWhirter (1990) state that LD students should also have the option of testing in a private room and reader or scribe services, depending upon the nature of the disability. As well, early registration for LD students ensures registration in desired courses, while at the same time reduces the anxiety and frustration commonly encountered during the initial week of classes (Haehl 1989). Research strongly suggests that faculty members are much more willing to accommodate the needs

of students in a variety of ways when students take the initiative to introduce themselves and effectively explain the specific nature of their learning difficulties (McWhirter and McWhirter 1990).

Allard, Dodd, and Peralez (1987) make several recommendations—specifically for administration personnel—that deal with the enrolment of LD students. First, early registration leaves ample time for students to purchase textbooks, arrange for tutors, and, more importantly, procure the courses they require. Second, the registrar's office or admissions office should keep detailed records on the LD students enrolled at the institution. Third, a special orientation program should be developed and implemented to familiarize the students with available academic services and the overall campus environment (Rogan 1987). Finally, time requirements for earning a degree should be extended for LD students while, simultaneously, maintaining the standards already in place (Allard, Dodd, and Peralez 1987).

Academic advisors

Academic advisors provide much-needed advice on course selection and the choice of a major, for students with and without learning disabilities (Strichart and Mangrum 1985). The role of the academic advisor for the learning disabled is of utmost importance due to the variability of skills and assets that students seeking a quality post-secondary education possess. Knowledgeable and caring academic advisors help develop an individualized college or university plan. Siperstein (1988) advocates the following features and considers them important in the initial phase of developing a plan of study: (1) identification of the needs of the student; (2) recognition of effective coping skills; (3) identification of resources pertinent to the student; (4) instruction in social, personal, and environmental obstacles the student encounter during their college or university education and the provision of necessary support; and (5) development of a plan that suits the needs and interests of the student.

Prominent special education programs for LD college and university students necessitate frequent and regular collaboration between students and advisors as a way to keep track of progress and any difficulties incurred (Strichart and Mangrum 1985). Frequent meetings, especially involving first-year students, are extremely important since, for many students, it is their first time away from home (Barbaro 1982). Furthermore, they are faced with many challenges such as increased freedom, academic pressures, and social and interpersonal issues in an unfamiliar environment. Moreover, the primary goal, according to Barbaro (1982), is to maintain structure without imposing unnecessary rigidity.

Michael (1987) maintains that academic advisors can offer students invaluable information on several issues: (1) scholarships and awards for the LD student; (2) specialized support groups and services for students with learning disabilities; (3) information about the past success of learning disabled individuals; (4) academic services and special courses available to students; and (5) the rights and responsibilities of LD students in a postsecondary institution. In addition, Dexter (1982) states that academic advisors can facilitate communication between students and professors, instructors, academic service providers, and administrators. Frequent contact between academic advisors and students not only cultivates a friendly alliance, but also helps prevent crisis and encourages students in their academic endeavours. According to Siperstein (1988) about students must be actively involved in making decisions about their academic program and other relevant areas of interest.

Compensatory skill workshops

Special courses aimed at improving reading, language, mathematics, writing, work, and study skills are common features on university and college campuses (Strichart and Mangrum 1985). These courses are particularly beneficial for LD students and significantly improve the prospects for the successful completion of postsecondary schooling. In addition, Strichart and Mangrum (1985) emphasize the importance of access to courses that focus on college survival strategies, communication skills, and instruction in typing and computer-application.

Ingram and Dettenmaier (1987) offer several compensation strategies for helping college and university students face the challenges of a learning disability and high academic expectations: (1) those who encounter reading problems should acquire the assistance of a reader or talking books; (2) instructors should be made well aware of the nature of the learning disability so that appropriate accommodations can be arranged; (3) students should review notes with a classmate or friend at the end of the lecture to ensure accuracy and understanding; (4) when there are difficulties in taking notes, students should arrange to photocopy notes from a classmate; (5) lectures can be recorder with the permission of the professor or instructor; (6) students can take notes on assigned readings to ensure that they understand; (7) class attendance should be regular, and distractability can be diminished when the student sits in the front and centre of the room; (8) students should extensively practice editing and proof reading their work before it is handed in; and (9) students should plan ahead and maintain a daily schedule for appointments, meetings, and classes.

Counselling services

Counselling services for the learning disabled are fundamental and consequently enable individuals to adjust academically and socially to their new surroundings (Strichart and Mangrum 1985). Counselling and human development incorporates many techniques subsumed under the following headings: (1) group counselling; (2) informal support groups; (3) individual counselling; and (4) career counselling.

Taves and Hutchinson (1993) emphasize two essential elements that contribute to the success of LD college and university students: self-awareness and self-advocacy. Individuals who achieve a sense of self-awareness or self-knowledge about their strengths and weaknesses will be better equipped to handle the challenges of university life. Individualized or group support can often help the learning disabled to delineate their strengths and weaknesses. Self-knowledge often leads to more effective communication and coping skills that ultimately contribute to academic competency (McWhirter and McWhirter 1990). Increased personal awareness allows individuals to understand how their learning disability affects their interpersonal relations. Through increased understanding and taking perspective, individuals can initiate changes to enhance their social skills. Thus, self-knowledge often leads to more effective coping and communication skills, which in turn promote self-confidence and self-esteem.

Self-advocacy fosters responsibility and independence (Taves and Hutchinson 1993). Students who address their needs directly to faculty members and administrators are perceived more positively, and simultaneously maintain a sense of control over their situation (McWhirter and McWhirter 1990). During group interaction, individuals can be encouraged to exercise their independence by initiating negotiations with professors and administrators concerning their learning disability and special requests (Taves and Hutchinson 1993). Increased self-knowledge and self-advocacy, along with quality group interaction, contribute to effective and efficient goal setting. Student organizations and group counselling reduce loneliness and anxiety (Allard, Dodd, and Peralez 1987), promote new friendships, and foster the acceptance of learning disabilities as opposed to denial. Students learn to reevaluate their life situation and reflect upon the fact that there are others who struggle with the same or similar problems.

Strichart and Mangrum (1985) underscore the importance of individual counselling and emphasize four main objectives: (1) facilitation of social adjustment; (2) regulation of academic acclimatization; (3) encourage-

ment in the development of interpersonal relationships; and (4) recognition and acceptance of their learning disabilities. Individualized counselling sessions permit clients to address personal issues that would be inappropriate in a group counselling environment (Allard, Dodd, and Peralez 1987).

Adaptations to counselling techniques and factors relevant to the counselling environment are addressed by Reekie (1993). The overall goal of these modifications is to facilitate effective, non-threatening interaction with LD students. Reekie (1993) suggests counsellors should: (1) minimize distractions in the room (such as images on computers and telephone interruptions); (2) use visual aids to enhance communication; (3) be explicit concerning counselling structure and relationship variables; (4) explain difficult concepts and new vocabulary; (5) use short and simple sentences; (6) probe the client to ensure comprehension; (7) encourage the client to bring a close friend or family member to provide support during and outside the session; and (8) allow the client to record sessions for later reference.

Group counselling is another important way of dealing with issues and concerns that LD individuals present (Orzek 1984). According to Orzek (1984), such groups foster: (1) development of competence; (2) management of emotions such as aggression; (3) development of autonomy; (4) establishment of identity; (5) interpersonal relationships; (6) clarification of purpose or goals; and (7) development of integrity.

The learning disabled frequently experience obstacles initiating and maintaining meaningful friendships (Orzek 1984). Related to this is their experience of isolation in elementary and secondary school, which often negatively influences their social and emotional development (Siperstein and Goding 1983). Over-dependence upon family members detracts from their development of intellectual, physical, manual, social, and interpersonal competence (Orzek 1984). Moreover, the emergence of autonomy, identity, integrity, self-awareness, and control over emotions is often restricted because of the specific learning problems they encounter.

Career counselling increases general and career-specific knowledge concerning vocations (Allard, Dodd, and Peralez 1987). Realistic goal-setting and development of a tangible plan of action are further benefits of career counselling. Unfortunately, career counselling individuals with learning disabilities poses several problems for the practicing counsellor (Humes 1986). First, LD clients frequently lack exposure to the realities of the working world. They often posses insufficient work experience due to a tendency to accept low-paying jobs. Second, they have faulty notions of what constitutes a career. Career development is viewed as

a lifelong choice, and they ignore the inevitability of change. Third, the learning disabled are characteristically unaware of their strengths and, therefore, do not seek to achieve their full potential in academics or in the work world itself. Fourth, due to frequent failure, stigma, and frustration during their childhood and adolescent years, LD individuals repeatedly maintain low levels of motivation. The learning disabled also carry the burden of high family expectations and social pressure for academic achievement and success. Unrealistic economic expectations further colour the outlook of many LD students who expect high standards of living upon graduation. Last, students tend to be rigid in their outlook concerning the choice of a career. They harbour limited flexibility and subsequently lose sight of a rapidly changing work world and trends in the area of career development.

It is clear that LD students present a wide variety of issues and concerns for the counsellor to sift through. According to Humes (1986), counsellors should be sensitive to: (1) the invisibility of the handicap and the implications this has on the individual and reactions of others; (2) stigma, stress, failure, and frustration; (3) mislabelling of the disability and possible late diagnosis; (4) lower expectations; (5) self-fulfilling prophecy of failure; and (6) negative self-concept. Thus, the role of the counsellor should be, in part, to build self-esteem, and self-confidence and to provide support, reassurance, and positive reinforcement.

Conclusion

Students with learning disabilities are faced with unique challenges as they enrol in postsecondary educational institutions. Furthermore, special programs for the learning disabled at colleges and universities play an important role in the success of these students. Learning disabled students have the ability to succeed in university if provided with appropriate services and accommodations. Moreover, both social and academic issues must be addressed in order for LD students to maintain a sense of belonging and accomplishment. Faculty members, academic advisors, administrators, and counsellors constitute integral components in this process and provide the necessary resources and support that will enable LD students to confront their difficulties and achieve their potential.

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Career planning with adult daughters of alcoholics

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Introduction

Authors writing about Adult Children of Alcoholics (ACOAs) tell us that ACOAs are extremely valued employees because of their dedication, loyalty, and capabilities (Woititz 1989; Woodside 1992). On the other hand, ACOAs have a high rate of burn-out, tend to be unable to handle stress, lose more days due to illness, are prone to depression, (especially around holiday time), have trouble with change and separation, may do poorly with new opportunities, and are a higher-risk group for develop-ing substance abuse (Woititz 1989). The purpose of this paper is to address the issues of family alcoholism and to explore how it may influence career planning with women.

Family alcoholism has an enormous impact on women's ability to cope with their lives. Although women who grew up in alcoholic families utilize numerous coping strategies to survive, it is important to acknowledge that many of these women are using up their vital energy to do little more than just survive. Career planning with adult daughters of alcoholics requires an understanding of the alcoholic legacy in order for ACOA clients to flourish in the workplace. However, any client who grew up in a troubled family system may share many of the same issues of ACOAs, and so the points made in this paper may be useful for various client populations.

Terms

There are several key terms used to discuss family alcoholism.

Children of trauma

Refers to children who were raised in a troubled family system. These children are described as having survived their childhoods rather than experiencing them, and as a result have surrendered parts of themselves very early in life (Gravitz 1987).

Troubled family system

Refers to a family in which there are compulsive behaviours (e.g., over- or under-eating, gambling, spending, working, or "loving" too much), horrors of traumatic stress (e.g., genocide survivors: Jews, Native Americans, Africans), schizophrenic or manic-depressive parent, parent with chronic mental or physical illness whose denial and misinformation fuelled fire of guilt and blame. Most have come from perfectionist, judgmental, critical, or other non-loving families who appeared normal or well functioning on the surface (Gravitz 1987).

Alcoholic

Alcoholics are those persons who are unable, with any predictability, to control their drinking, and/or whose drinking causes problems in major areas of their lives. Alcoholism is classified as a disease (Black 1981).

Alcoholic family

The alcoholic family has been described broadly as one of chaos, inconsistency, unpredictability, unclear roles, arbitrariness, changing limits, arguments, repetitious and illogical thinking, and perhaps violence and incest (Brown 1992).

Adult children of alcoholics

Refers to adults who were raised in a family where one or more parent was a practising alcoholic (Ackerman 1989).

Adult daughters of alcoholics

Refers specifically to women who were raised in alcoholic families (Ackerman 1989).

Characteristics of adult children of alcoholics

Excerpted from Janet Woititz, *The Self-Sabotage Syndrome: Adult Children in the Workplace.*

Adult Children of Alcoholics (ACOAs) guess at what normal is

This is the most profound characteristic of ACOAs. They simply have no experience with what normal is. To survive, ACOAs lived in a fantasy world and developed unrealistic fantasies about what life would be like if their parent got sober. They have no frame of reference for what is appropriate to say and feel, and constantly question feelings and thoughts.

Implications for the workplace

- They very frequently become scapegoats because they ask a great number of questions.
- ACOAs are ideal candidates for exploitation because they don't know when to say no.

ACOAs have difficulty in following a project through

ACOAs are not procrastinators in the usual sense. Role modelling and teaching about project completion did not occur in the alcoholic family

where plans or promises were often not completed. Consequently, ACOAs do not have a clear sense of themselves (their capabilities or limits) and are often criticized for grandiose thinking.

Implications for the workplace

- ACOAs can be short-sighted and may not be able to plan ahead in order to complete projects.
- They may be unable to complete long-term projects.

ACOAs lie when it would be just as easy to tell the truth

Lying is basic to the family system affected by alcohol. Much of the family's energy is spent denying what is going on around the alcoholic, and despite the children's recognition that something is not right in the family, they learn it is easier not to deal directly or honestly with what they think and feel. Although there may be no benefit from lying, it seems to make life simpler for the children and for family, and thus becomes a habit.

Implications for the workplace

- ACOAs second guess the person who asks about their project so that they can give the answer they think the other person wants rather than discuss the difficulties they may be having.
- They will agree to perform tasks they cannot perform because they assume they would not have been asked if they couldn't. They may be unable to assess their own capabilities and assume others can assess them better.

ACOAs judge themselves without mercy

In an alcoholic home there is no way for children to be good enough. Constantly criticized in a way that may not have made any sense (e.g., "If you weren't such a rotten kid, I wouldn't have to drink"), the children internalize these negative messages. As adults, ACOAs become driven by rigid standards of behaviour.

Implications for the workplace

- They will assume they are responsible for anything that goes wrong in the workplace.
- They will not accept strokes if the task was easy to perform.
- ACOAs will downplay any credit they receive for completing a difficult task because "It's all part of the job."

ACOAs have difficulty having fun, and take themselves very seriously

Children of alcoholics simply do not have much fun. Life in an alcoholic home is serious, angry business. Spontaneous displays of joy or even anger were not allowed by anyone in the family except the alcoholic.

Implications for the workplace

- ACOAs have trouble separating themselves from their work and are prime candidates for burn-out.

ACOAs over-react to changes over which they have no control

As young children, ACOAs were not in control because the alcoholic's life was inflicted on them. In order to survive, the children learned to take charge of their own environment, trusting themselves only. As a result, they are often accused of being controlling, rigid, and lacking spontaneity, which is probably true. It is not that ACOAs are spoiled or unwilling to listen to other ideas; it comes from the fear that if they are not in charge, if a change is made abruptly, quickly, and without their being able to participate in it, they feel they will lose control of their lives.

Implications for the workplace

- Any change involves some loss of one's identity (more so than healthy adults do when experiencing change, because ACOAs are more externally referenced).
- Adjustment to change involves experiencing old fears of inadequacy and discovery (ACOAs experience profound feelings of worthlessness and constantly fear being discovered as an impostor).

ACOAs constantly seek approval and affirmation

Arranging their lifes around the moods and behaviour of the alcoholic parent in order to survive, the children developed an external locus of control. In the alcoholic home, messages sent to the children were inconsistent and mixed, and as a result the children internal dialogue becomes filled with mixed and mostly negative messages.

Implications for the workplace

- Since ACOAs are externally referenced, they are unable to affirm themselves and will seek affirmation from co-workers and

supervisors (and will be extremely sensitive and self-critical with performance appraisals).
- ACOAs will overwork to gain praise (which ironically can serve to alienate them from co-workers and family members).

ACOAs are either super-responsible or superirresponsible

As children they she learned that no matter how hard they tried to please their parents, it was never enough, so the cycle of overperforming followed by underperforming began. Because they did not see family members cooperating with each other and did not have sense of being part of a project, it is difficult for ACOAs to work as part of a team.

Implications for the workplace

- ACOAs have difficulty sharing responsibility because they have no experience of working cooperatively to draw upon, and so assume either all responsibility or none at all.
- They have trouble trusting others to do what they have agreed to do (they are used to being let down and find it hard to believe that others won't let them down, regardless of consistent evidence to the contrary).
- They may judge the performance of others in the same merciless way they judge themselves, and that can make them unpopular supervisors.

ACOAs are extremely loyal, even in the face of evidence that the loyalty is undeserved

In an alcoholic home no one is allowed to walk away, no matter how abusive things become. The possibility that other options may be available is not explored—or discussed—all part of denial. The children do not learn that there are other options available for the parents, or that for the children there are options beyond what the parents choose. The children believe they should be able to control the drinking and blame themselves for not being able to fix their family. The children remain loyal to their parents because they must, in order to survive. However, this leads to fear of authority figures, and ACOAs can give up personal power to such figures too easily. (This is especially important to note for adult daughters of alcoholics because women are socialized to give away personal power).

Implications for the workplace

- ACOAs tend to give loyalty immediately and completely, regardless of how the supervisor/organization treats them. (They may not

recognize sexual harassment and/or may not report an incident because they may believe it was their fault.)

- They have ambivalent feelings toward authority figures and will tend to dislike them because they fear authority figures control their lives, the result can be strained relationships with superiors.

ACOAs are impulsive

They tend to lock themselves into a course of action without giving serious consideration to alternative behaviours/actions. This impulsiveness leads to confusion, self-loathing, and loss of control over their environment, and they then have to spend excessive energy cleaning up the mess.

Implications for the workplace

- Decision making is difficult for ACOAs, and they tend to make impulsive decisions without considering the long- or short-term implications.
- Since separation issues are terrifying for ACOAs, they will tend to move on quickly rather than deal with those issues. (They may move into another job area without considering their options, or because significant others think it is a good idea.)

Suggestions for career counsellors working with adult children of alcoholics

- Because adult daughters are quick to give loyalty to authority figures, your positional power as a career counsellor must be carefully managed. Ensuring that they are self-validating their discoveries about interest and personality tests is crucial. However, be prepared to challenge them if they begin to use language like "I should be like" or "I should like."

- Provide them with an opportunity to recognize and explore their need to be externally validated at or through work. Help them to identify which needs are trying to be met at work, and brainstorm ways they can ask for the validation they need in healthy and appropriate ways at work, and how they can validate themselves.

- Remember that as children they grew up in an atmosphere of chaos and inconsistency, and that overcontrolling their environment provides some relief from anxiety. Going over job responsibilities may help them to stop overworking and use their energy in more refreshing ways.

- Explore their role in their family of origin. If an ACOA was the hero child or the responsible child, she may be an overachiever with a high risk for burn-out. Or if she was the lost child, she may have a substance-abuse problem and/or have a chaotic work history. If she was the adjuster or placater, she may be currently in a job where the concern for others is paramount, and her needs may be overlooked.

- If your client comes to you in a panic about a promotion, understand that she may be experiencing "impostor" syndrome in which she feels she is absolutely unable to do the job and everyone is soon going to find it out. Help her to sort through her skills so that she can gain a clear picture of her abilities and doesn't allow her family-of-origin script of being a failure to sabotage her advancement. While many ACOAs are very competent, most believe they are not.

- Realize that even if your clients are extremely competent, yet continue to impede their own progress, they may be immobilized by fear of abandonment or discovery and can't envision another way. Share with them how other women have overcome obstacles and how your clients could utilize these strategies. Creating connections with women who have made healthy choices around work issues can be extremely helpful.

- Being in a chaotic and unsupportive work environment triggers flashbacks for ACOAs, causing them to react in old patterns that may not be appropriate or professional. Help them to separate their family history from what is currently happening in the workplace so that they can develop strategies to manage change or upheaval at work.

- Adult daughters can easily remain caught in complaining about work, and may resist your attempts to develop positive solutions. In an alcoholic family, things never changed, and clients came to believe they were not worth making changes for. They may now feel helpless and ineffectual. Adult daughters have been given the message by both family and culture that they are helpless to affect change. It is vital that women unlearn learned helplessness so that they can advocate on their own behalf.

- Begin a portfolio of healthy responses to work crises. Do role playing exercises that are fun and nonthreatening, helping them to try on new behaviours and ways of thinking through problems.

- Adult daughters feel that if they are not happy in or suited for the job, they *should* be or that something is wrong with them. Rather than focusing on how they *should* adjust to an ill-suited job, spend time helping them to discover what their skills, interests, and

temperaments are and which jobs they may be well suited for. Even though this is part of career counselling, you need to know that your clients may not have had such an opportunity to explore themselves with someone who believes that doing so is worth-while. They may not have a very well-defined sense of self. Your role will be to let them define themselves without judgment or conditions.

Concluding remarks

Working with adult daughters of alcoholics requires the career counsellor to see beyond seemingly immature or inappropriate work responses, to women who, as children were taught, and now believe, that they are unlovable and responsible for anything that goes wrong, and that they can rely on no one. You will need to be mindful of your biases about sex-roles so that you will not encourage your clients to remain ineffectual by failing to illustrate how their gender can limit their positional power at work, that this is an issue separate from their personal power (Worell, Remer 1992). Adult daughters of alcoholics seriously underestimate their personal power to the extent that they are unable to utilize their own resources to effect change. Rather than see themselves as change agents, ACOAs see change as something that happens to them.

In essence, career counselling is about managing change. And as we know, change is extremely difficult for the majority of people. For the ACOAs, however, it is especially frightening because it triggers memories of a childhood fraught with chaos and constant crisis. Much of their recovery work is about creating the self, finding stability, and moving away from the chaos and uncertainty of the past. Imagine their enormous fear as we move into an age of constant change where one must be able to adapt quickly and accurately. ACOAs are brilliant adapters, but they will have difficulty in this time of upheaval. The best way to help ACOAs manage change is not to look to where they may go, but to where they are now. Helping the ACOA to see where and what she is today helps her to connect to the self she needs in order to make healthy choices.

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Conquering interview anxiety

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Conquering interview anxiety

Whether we are counseling our clients on exploring career choices or coaching them on job-search techniques, we know that our clients' self-confidence and self-esteem are crucial in order to identify their strengths, skills, marketability, and competitiveness in considering a career or job change. Often they express their feelings of inadequacy: "I don't have enough training," "I'm too old (or disabled)," "I don't have enough experience," or "I'm not the best candidate." These concerns manifest themselves most dramatically when a client is preparing for the job interview. This paper addresses two methods for relieving this anxiety: (a) helping the client identify personal strengths and teaching self-motivational activities, and (b) helping the client utilize this self-confidence during the interview.

Reverend Nash said, "It is more one's attitude, than aptitude which determines one's altitude." Before we can reach our potential we must be able to recognize all we have to offer. William Bridges, suggests we develop our product: ourselves. We should survey our D.A.T.A.—desires, abilities, temperament, and assets (Bridges 1994). We want our clients to appreciate their successes and strengths.

One exercise is to ask them to name a specific problem they have tackled. This is preferably work related but can come out of a personal or academic experience. What did they accomplish and how did they attain it? I remind my clients that they got to this point in their lives by being a success. They achieved a certain level of education, they managed interpersonal relationships, they held part-time or full-time jobs, etc. When clients focus on recent failures, I always look backward with them to past achievements and highlights. Rarely does an individual have more losses than wins—the failures just stand out more or are easier to recall. Bernard Haldane asks his clients to remember their successes at various stages in their childhood and adulthood (Haldane 1996)

We need to think positive thoughts. Henry Ford said, "Think you can, think you can't—either way, you're right." Conducting a job search is essentially a marketing campaign. A positive self-image is required in order to *sell* oneself to an employer. Replace the negative words we say about ourselves with positive ones. When things go wrong, criticize the behaviour, not oneself. Don't say, "I'm stupid because I didn't anticipate the layoff." Rather, learn from the situation. "I didn't see this coming, but now I know the warning signs and will react better next time."

I tell my clients to praise themselves and those around them, daily; to get in the habit, both mentally and verbally, of patting themselves on the back; to focus on their strengths and any positive act, no matter how small; to learn to accept compliments; to practice self-talk. Every morning, they should ask themselves, *What am I happy about in my life, now? What makes me proud? What am I excited about in my life?;* and every night, they should ask themself, *What did I learn today? What have I given? How has today enhanced the quality of my life?*

Try practicing visualization. "What will the new job help you achieve or attain? Do you want to learn computer skills? Do you want to buy a new car? What kind? What color? Be specific and plan for that goal. Picture yourself at the computer. Imagine yourself driving that new car." If we can see it and believe it, then we are more likely to be able to achieve it.

Sometimes a client has had a problem with a former employer and fears a bad reference. If he still needs to use her, he should call her up and remind her of his dates of employment and job title. He can acknowledge that he may have been in over his head or had problems on the job, but then explain how he has overcome those issues and speak of recent successes. "I want to let you know that in my last job I handled the accounts payable with accuracy and efficiency. I know I benefited from the computerized accounting class I took." He may even explain that he has learned from mistakes and is not going to repeat those errors.

This technique works well with ex-offenders. "I made a mistake and paid my debt. During that time I took classes and I am committed to being a success. I am wiser and more focused. I know what went wrong and I am not going to let that happen again." If your client has an obvious handicap, she should explain how she has succeeded thus far. How has she developed compensating skills? "I have dealt with frustration and disappointment. I have grown and been able to turn these issues around." What about clients with long-term unemployment. Did they use the time to get training? They should. Did the clients take this opportunity to evaluate their careers and focus on their strengths?

For clients who are uncomfortable verbalizing their feelings or unable to articulate their strengths, I ask them to draw two or three things they do well. They can be a depiction of the activity (a stick figure talking) or a symbol (lips or words in a cartoon balloon). I am always amazed at the creativity and originality of my clients. I also ask them to draw what makes them proud. Again, I get anything from a symbol to lovely

sketches. The last thing to draw is their goal, either short- or long-term. This also aids in visualization.

Some clients need suggestions when asked to identify their strengths. I created a list of work and personality traits from which they can check the strengths that they feel apply to them. Then I give them a duplicate list and ask them to give it to a friend or loved one. They ask that individual to check the strengths that apply to the client. Usually, positive traits are checked that clients didn't see in themselves. An optional step in the first part of the exercise is to ask your clients to circle traits they wish to enhance.

Desired employee traits

Enthusiastic	Resourceful	Thorough
Honest/Sincere	Hard worker	Inquisitive
Self-starter	Ambitious	Goal-oriented
Economical	Skilled	Receptive
Open to suggestions	Tactful	Neat/Clean
Proud of performance	Flexible	Good communicator
Determined	Diligent	Fair
Team worker	Open to compromise	Conscientious
Confident	Motivated	Resilient
Careful	Reliable	Professional
Efficient	Independent	Competent
Optimistic/Upbeat	Good listener	Punctual
Organized	Eager to learn	Self-disciplined
Friendly	Energetic	Sense of humor
Helpful	Dedicated	Loyal
Consistent	Unselfish	Take initiative

The second use of the strengths list is to prepare to answer interview questions. Have clients go through the list and check their greatest strengths. Of those they've checked, select ones they feel most comfortable discussing. Then circle the traits that are most desirable in the type of work they do. The ones that are checked and circled should be brought out during the interview. The technique is called trait + answer. Many people feel uncomfortable bragging about themselves. The praise that we heap upon ourselves seems hollow. How do we convince the employer that we are indeed conscientious, creative, and organized? Have your clients remember the checked and circled strengths, and as they are asked about their work experience, have them talk about their accomplishments that are related to that strength. For example, "I am highly organized and this has enabled me to revise the

filing system, making the files more accessible." The achievement validates the claim of being well organized.

When my clients still express feelings of inadequacy about their lack of experience or specific knowledge, then I tell them about recent surveys of employers. Studies, including the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS), published by the United States Department of Labor, recognize that employers are more interested in *soft* skills. These are the personal qualities, thinking skills, and interpersonal abilities we bring to the work place. These include: accuracy, efficiency, initiative, good attendance and punctuality, self-confidence, neatness and grooming, a sense of humor, decision-making skills, and the capability to learn and grow with the job.

Today's employers are telling us that, given a choice, they would rather have a reliable worker with a *can do* attitude. They can always teach specific work-related skills or arrange for training. What they cannot create is a worker who takes responsibility and is comfortable working with others.

So, I ask my hesitant clients a series of questions: Have you ever worked with someone who was often late or absent? Have you ever worked with someone who had a negative attitude and complained all the time? Have you ever worked with someone who didn't really give a full day's work and was lazy? Have you ever worked with someone who didn't get along with others? Have you ever worked with someone who was sloppy about his/her work or appearance? Have you ever worked with someone who made a lot of mistakes and did not care? These questions can be modified to "Have you ever known (or gone to school with) someone who didn't get along with others?" As I ask each question, I require the client to raise his/her hand if in agreement. This exercise works well with groups or individuals. At first, they don't realize where this exercise is heading. Then I repeat the questions; however, I change them to "Are you someone who gets along well with others? Do you have a positive attitude?" Again, they must raise their hands. Ultimately, a light goes on in their minds and they realize that they are, on the whole, better employees.

I come right out and ask them, "If you were the employer, whom would you rather hire?" I remind them that there are a lot of those lazy, sloppy, difficult, and careless workers. Employers are seeking candidates just like our clients.

Finally, the time has come for the job interview—the face-to-face meeting with the potential buyer. As with any business meeting, I require

that my clients bring a small notepad to the interview. If the interviewer is startled, they simply state that this meeting is important and they want to remember what they hear. Then ask permission to take notes. Rarely will an employer refuse. The notepad should have already been prepared. At the top of each page (where they will not be noticed) they will have jotted down some notes, reminders of things they want to do or say. Comments can be about achievements, training, making eye contact, etc. Every time the clients look down to write, they have access to these reminders. This should prevent them from leaving the interview having forgotten to mention an important topic. As clients participate in the interview, they keep notes of important points. This will help greatly when writing the thank-you letter or when considering if this is the right fit. Often, while the employer is speaking, clients will hear something to which they will want to respond later, so they write it down on the pad in brackets. This is a cue that they want to address this issue.

On a more practical matter, the notepad helps to occupy the hands and avoid those distracting nervous gestures of playing with jewelry or clothes. Finally, at the back of the pad have the client write out some questions to ask the interviewer. When the interviewer asks if there are any questions, the client can reply, "As I researched your company, I wrote down some comments. You've answered most of my questions but I do have a few left." Then read the prepared questions, as well as any new ones.

Try reversing roles. Have your clients imagine they are already an employee of this company. How should they act? What skills would they want an employee to exhibit? Even speak as if they were already on the job. "As medical records manager, I will strive to reduce time lags in information gathering and data entry, as I did at XYZ Company."

The last technique is answer + one, a way to introduce the clients' own agenda items into the discussion. If they want to talk about their computer skills and the interviewer doesn't bring up the topic, they shouldn't despair. At a relevant time they can add this information onto the end of another answer. For example, "I maintain over 40,000 medical records and, because I have solid computer skills, I have created a database with retrieval in eight different fields." Most employers will next ask about this database.

The interview and the job await candidates who believes in themselves. By bringing a positive, confident, and enthusiastic attitude to the job search and interview, clients will open doors to rewarding and fulfilling futures.

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09

Creativity as a core competency

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> *Discovery consists of looking at the same thing as everyone else and thinking something different.*
>
> —Nobel Prize Winner, Albert Szent-Györgyi

Synopsis of major theories

Plsek's comprehensive review of definitions of creativity yielded five common themes: 1. novel, original ideas, 2. associating, rearranging, and transforming knowledge, 3. surprise, finding order amid chaos, 4. certain personality characteristics, and 5. usefulness and value as judged by society (Plsek 1994). Plsek argues that creative thoughts are relatively rare because the historical approach to thinking suggests that creative thoughts must be the result of extraordinary thought processes or some sort of giftedness (Plsek 1994).

Just as Plsek (1994) states that we can take deliberate mental actions that lead to creative thought, Edward de Bono agrees that training, structures, and systematic techniques can raise the general level of creative ability (de Bono 1993, p. 31). De Bono invented the term *lateral thinking* to describe the thought process that moves sideways across neural patterns in the brain, instead of moving along them as in normal thinking (de Bono 1993, p. 15). In other words, de Bono indicates that creativity is a skill that needs to be actively developed because our brain is so good at organizing information into routine patterns. Von Oech (p. 143) articulates the same idea in saying that we do not "think something different" more often because we don't have to be creative for most of what we do (e.g., riding in an elevator, waiting in line at a grocery store), and because the traditional educational system does not teach most of us to be creative.

The creative process

Plsek (1994) summarizes the conclusions that cognitive science has drawn about creative thinking by writing that our normal thought processes are not optimized for creative thinking, but that we can take particular mental actions to lead to creative thoughts. Plsek notes that cognitive science has shown that our everyday perception processes tend to oversummarize information in a given situation. A real effort must be made to perceive a situation freshly and to make novel mental associations. For example, von Oech (p. 143) recommends reversing one's viewpoint as a technique to alter perception and sharpen thinking. In the same way, de Bono (1993, pp. 86–89) suggests taking a creative

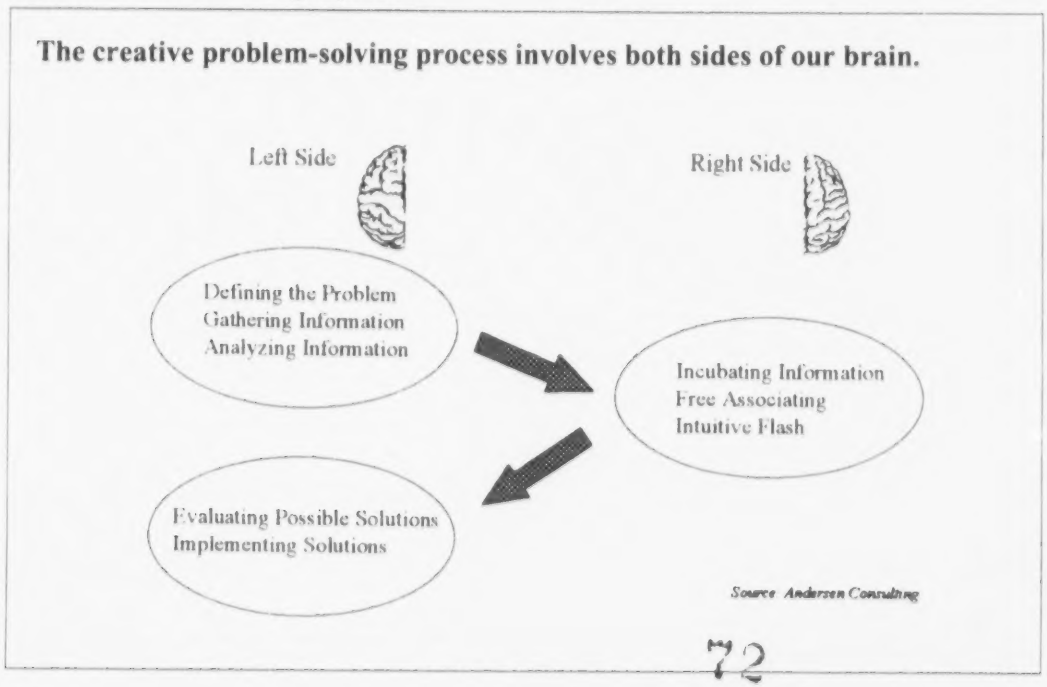
pause to deliberately interrupt the smooth flow of routine in order to pay attention to some point.

Tools and techniques are useful in focusing our creative energy on a particular issue. However, it is important to realize that our attitude and the ability to use our brains greatly affect our potential level of creativity.

Attitude is a key element in thinking creatively since there is only one internal factor that affects our level of creativity: self-perception. According to a study performed by the advertising firm Young & Rubicam, self-perception was the only factor that correlated positively with creativity (Andersen 1995). The study showed that the most creative people believed that they were creative, and they enjoyed coming up with ideas. Conversely, the least creative people did not perceive themselves as creative, and were hesitant to suggest ideas. However, attitude must be combined with the ability to use one's brain, to be truly effective.

Many studies have shown that each side of the brain (right and left) has specific abilities to perform intuitive and analytical problem solving. Harnessing the internal creative process will allow an individual to use the left side of the brain to think analytically about a problem, then use the right side for incubating new ideas, and use the left side again to evaluate alternatives and implement solutions. The next figure illustrates a sample creative thought process.

Figure 1 Creative thought process



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Why are creativity and lateral thinking important?

Tools and techniques such as de Bono's Six Thinking Hats, Thompson's Idea Mapping, and Hall's Eureka! Stimulus Response are just three of the practical creativity techniques that can be used to solve problems.

De Bono (1994, pp. 1–4) submits that quality programs should not be used just to improve present methods but also to seek alternative methods of reaching the objectives agreed upon. De Bono asserts that creativity is needed to generate the alternatives. Given the ever-changing market-place, new ideas and new ways of doing things are desperately needed. In fact, companies must combat the maturing effects of the product life-cycle so that a product continues to provide value to its customers with improvements and new features. Innovative companies, like 3M, set objectives so that a substantial portion of their revenues and profits come from products that did not exist three years previously. However, to develop creativity as a core competency, it is essential that we enrich our knowledge and skills in this area.

What are some of the tools and techniques for creativity and lateral thinking?

The creative hit list

De Bono developed the notion of a creative hit list (de Bono 1992, p. 246). This list may contain problems, improvement tasks, projects, and whims and opportunities that require creative attention. Items on a creative hit list should be selected carefully and require a new approach to thinking. De Bono reminds us that any creative hit list requires a custodian to gatekeep and appropriately phrase items that go onto the list. Examples consist of the following: a car park is too small, absenteeism is increasing; time taken up in meetings must be reduced, a PC stand needs inventing, and letters need to be signed, etc.

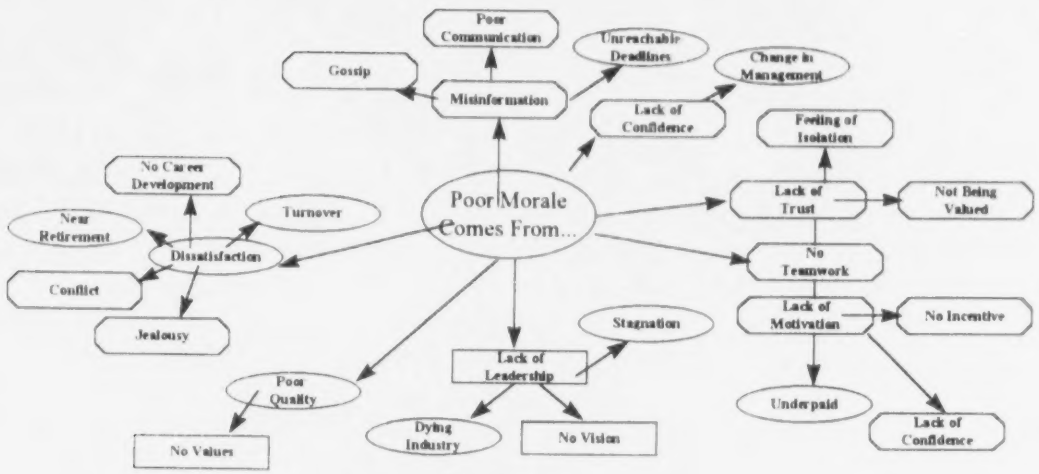
Word and idea association

Word and idea associations have proven to play a major role in creativity and lateral thinking. Plsek (1994) and de Bono (1992, p. 246) both note that mental associations are an important part of basic mental movements in directed creativity. Thompson (1992, p. 46) describes the exercise known as Idea Mapping, which was invented by Tony Buzan. Idea Mapping is an exercise in word and idea association, based on a problem known as the trigger word. Ideas generated are evaluated

only to see if any words are related to others. Associations are built by connecting related words or thoughts with arrows. These associations are grouped into main concepts, which are clustered using different geometric symbols. Within each cluster, ideas can be rank-ordered to yield the best solution(s). Thompson provides many concrete examples of Idea Mapping, including an analysis of how to improve poor morale using the trigger phrase "poor morale comes from..." His example is illustrated in the following figure.

Figure 2 Idea Mapping example

Problem: Poor morale
Trigger words: Comes from...



Source: What a Great Idea! by Charles Thompson

Six Thinking Hats

Six Thinking Hats is a tool for lateral thinking developed by Edward de Bono (1985). This tool uses the metaphor of six coloured hats to focus on six different thinking processes that help generate creative ideas. Metaphors are popular creative tools, and Thompson notes that "highly creative people often use comparisons—similes and metaphors—to help define problems and to think about possible solutions" (de Bono 1985, p. 111). Ideas may be provoked at will to suit any organizational or personal problem or issue. This technique achieves these goals by using each hat (or thought process) systematically to generate ideas, determine the benefits and limitations of each idea, and finally, determine the "best" approach to the problem.

There are two main purposes to the six thinking hats concept. The first purpose is to simplify thinking by allowing the thinker to deal with one thing at a time. Instead of having to take care of emotions, logic, information, hope, and creativity all at the same time, the thinker is able to deal with them separately. The second purpose of the concept is to allow a switch in thinking, in that the concept of the hats makes it possible to request certain types of thinking at certain times. When using the Six Thinking Hats, the thinker must put on and take off hats according to the type of thinking required. Below is a description of each hat.

White

White is neutral and objective. The white hat covers fact, figures, information needs, and gaps.

Red

Red suggests anger and emotions. The red hat covers intuition, feelings, and emotions.

Black

Black is gloomy and negative. The black hat covers the logical negative aspects of the proposal.

Yellow

Yellow is sunny and positive. The yellow hat is optimistic. It covers hope and logical positive thinking.

Green

Green is grass, vegetation, and abundant, fertile growth. The green hat covers creativity, new ideas, alternatives, and proposals.

Blue

Blue is the colour of the sky, which covers everything else. The blue hat is concerned with control and the organization of the thinking process.

Eureka! stimulus response

Doug Hall, a retired master marketing inventor for Procter & Gamble, emphasizes the importance of a creative environment as part of the theory of inventing "wickedly good" ideas (Hall 1995). Using his theory, "the big idea—the Eureka!—comes from blending stimuli with your personal Brain Operating System, all multiplied by a factor of adventurous fun" (Hall 1995).

Killing killer phrases

Most of us would agree that creativity is stifled if meeting participants do not share their ideas for fear that someone in the group will say something like, "We've tried that before and it didn't work," or, "Yes, but..." Phrases like these are called "mental locks" by von Oech (1990, p. 143), are also known as killer phrases, and they can really dampen creativity. Thompson outlines a number of ways to overcome killer phrases (Thompson 1992, p. 34). Killer phrases can be avoided once people are familiar with the term "killer phrase" then they can recognize these responses and overcome them, and also identify the most common killer phrases in their organization. Thompson also recommends listing common killer phrases on a flipchart before a meeting, as a guide to reducing their use.

Other techniques

Creativity can also be increased by the everyday use of a number of other tools and techniques, such as question assumptions; no negatives; seek quantity, not quality; defer judgement; challenge conventional wisdom; ambiguity; focus on the real problem; turn obstacles into opportunities; explore the ridiculous; and build and combine ideas.

What about organizational creativity?

Organizations must be able to meet today's challenges and they demand a new set of competencies and behaviours from employees (Gundry, Kickul, and Prather 1994, pp. 22–57). Individuals are expected to demonstrate up-to-date technical skills, skills in teamwork, innovation, and cross-disciplinary communication. Underlying these skills is the ability to apply creativity and innovation to organizational problems.

As a result, it is crucial for companies to understand the critical factors behind organizational creativity and to manage them as part of innovation. This way, new and creative ideas can be applied to problems and issues, and the result is learning. Learning allows these new ideas to be applied to future situations. Further, learning stimulates the organization to accelerate the flow of creative ideas.

Definition of organizational creativity

Woodman, Sawyer, and Griffin define organizational creativity as the "creation of a valuable, useful new product, service, idea, procedure, or process by individuals working together in a complex social system" (Woodman, Sawyer, and Griffin 1993, pp. 293–321). The authors indicate that organizational creativity is formed by the subsets of individual and group creativity, while incorporating environmental conditions and management practices. In other words, organizational creativity (the creative outcomes of a complex social system) is then a function of group creativity and contextual influences, including those that come from the environment.

Executive issues

To enhance chances of success with creativity, top management support is critical. Openness and experimentation are required to facilitate idea conception and development. Creativity involves risk and empowerment. Managers must be ready to provide their employees with appropriate information and freedom to follow through on ideas.

Conflicts between individual, group, and organizational creativity are inevitable. Strategies to manage these challenges are required. These strategies must consider fear of change and thorough training in creativity tools and techniques. Looking to get started? The Internet offers many opportunities for information and learning about creativity. Some suggested sites include:

Innovation Station
http://creativity.psych.yorku.ca
Australia School of Thinking
http://www.mel.aone.net.au/sot
Idea Web
http://galileo.metatech.com/ideaweb.htm
Breakthrough Thinking
http://www.teleport.com/~wisdom1
Creativity Home Page
http://www.unidata.com/creative.htm
Creativity, Innovation and Problem Solving
http://www.tiac.net/creativity.html
Creativity Cafe
http://www.woodwind.com/ccafe
COW Consulting
http://www.earthlink.net/~cowconsult

Creativity Web
http://www.ozemail.com.au/~caveman/Creative

Summary

Plsek's comprehensive definition of creativity focuses on five common themes including 1. novel, original ideas, 2. association, rearranging, and transforming knowledge, 3. surprise, finding order amid chaos, 4. certain personality characteristics, and 5. usefulness and value as judged by society.

Among almost all the "creativity experts" there is agreement that training and particular tools and techniques are important to help people be creative. It is a myth that only some people are creative or think more laterally than others. The lessons from cognitive science indicate that because our normal thought processes are not optimized for creative thinking, deliberate mental actions are required. Some of the tools and techniques for creativity and lateral thinking include:

- reversing viewpoints to alter perception
- using the creative pause
- talking to someone who is different from us to unstick thinking
- setting a quota for the number of ideas to be developed before choosing one
- developing and using personal heuristics
- using a creative hit list
- Idea Mapping
- wearing the Six Thinking Hats
- killing "killer phrases"
- stimulating your brain using the Eureka! Stimulus Response

Given the challenges facing today's organizations, employees need new skills and competencies that they can apply to problems. Individual creativity is also important in today's environment since it is a subset of both group and organizational creativity.

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Ethics and issues in career counselling

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Ethical issues in career counselling

To meet society's demand for excellence, it becomes mandatory for career/employment counsellors to increase their competence in two areas: knowledge and skills that ground the profession, and ethical decision making. Typically, educational institutions provide the knowledge and skills for professional counsellors in preservice programs while professional organizations provide a code of ethics and a decision-making paradigm. Within the latter context, the purpose of this paper is to discuss a number of ethical issues related to selected areas primarily within the domain of career counselling, to present a decision-making paradigm within which to make ethical decisions and to illustrate the use of this model using a case-study.

Guidelines for education and professional practice

The code of ethics of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association (CGCA) may be used to inform the professional practice of career/employment counsellors, and the National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (NOICC) competencies outline the knowledge and skills necessary to practise career/employment counselling. While the CGCA code of ethics is binding on its members, any nonmember professional practitioners are not bound by its guidelines. However, nonmember professionals could profit from a knowledge of its contents, particularly to avoid the possibility of malpractice charges. The courts might use the code as a standard of practice to determine what the "professional counsellor" would do in any particular circumstance. The NOICC guidelines outline the knowledge and skill components for career/employment counsellors and is useful as a guide for professional growth or program development for practising counsellors.

Two issues pertinent to the topic of competent professional practice include the "boundaries of competence" and the "variations" to the code of ethics. The ethical principle on boundaries of competence suggests that professionals need to recognize their boundaries of competence and provide only those services and use only those techniques for which they are trained, and should not accept positions for which they are not qualified. The principle of variations deals with work practices that contravene the CGCA code of ethics. Members should feel that such variations are justified and should make them known to all concerned with the agency/institution. Also, the member must inform all who are involved with the service, including clients, administrators, other counsellors, and the board of directors of the variations.

Selected areas of career and employment counselling practice

Outplacement

Outplacement equips employees of a company with the skills to find employment outside the company. The client of the outplacement counsellor is the company, not the employee with whom he or she will be working. Outplacement firms employ career counsellors to work with individuals over a defined time period to assist them in finding a new position. The focus in outplacement is teaching individuals (in groups or singly) how to be successful in their job search.

Two relevant ethical principles in such contexts are that clients be "informed of counselling conditions" and the issue of "dual relationships." The CGCA code deals with the right of the client to be informed of counselling conditions at or before the time the client enters the counselling relationship. Clients need to know who will have access to the confidential information from the counselling relationship, the potential risks of the services to be performed, and they need to understand the implications of the counselling diagnosis, the intended use of tests, reports, fees, etc. For example, if there is third-party billing involved, counsellors usually have to provide some information to the party who will be paying for the services. Dual relationships involve the counsellor offering services to clients when there has been a prior professional and/or social relationship. The prior relationship may influence the counsellor's objectivity and professional judgment when dealing with a client. In rural areas this is often impossible to avoid. In such situations, the counsellor should make every effort ensure that his or her objectivity and professional judgment are not compromised. If this is not possible, then the relationship should not be initiated.

Axmith (1991) suggests that counsellors inform their clients of the conditions of counselling and, thereby avoid potential ethical violations. Axmith suggests several issues that might break the confidentiality norm: the amount and type of information reported to the client (that is, the employer), progress in the counselling relationship, information about the work status of the client should he or she obtain another job while still receiving pay from the original employer, and reporting the emotional state of the employee. The difficulty with outplacement is that it is easy for the counsellor to forget who the client is. With outplacement services, the client is the employer who has contracted services for her or his employees. Another possible ethical issue deals with integrity and respect for the client. This touches on the advice you might give the employee to whom you are providing direct service.

For example, if an employee asks you as a counsellor whether he or she should sue the employer for a better settlement, what advice should you give? Should you respect the concerns of your client, the employer? This issue is cleared up somewhat if it is discussed both with the client (employer) and the employee prior to providing the counselling service.

Computerized client information and counselling notes

Two ethical principles connected with computerized client information and counselling notes are "confidentiality" and counselling "records." The principle of confidentiality suggests that the relationship and information from it should be kept confidential. Counsellors are to respect the privacy and integrity of their clients. Clients need to know the instances where confidentiality cannot be respected, particularly when harm or legal implications are possible. If the courts order disclosure of information, the counsellor should request the courts that disclosure not be made because of the potential harm it can cause the client. In any situation, the client should be informed if any disclosure is to be made, with or without his or her permission. The second principle concerning counselling records includes interview notes, test data, correspondence, and/or tape recordings. The code suggests that these items are professional information for use in counselling and are not considered part of the official records of the institution or agency in which the counsellor is employed.

Counsellors must take reasonable steps to ensure that records and data from the counselling relationship remain available to serve the best interest of their clients. Such records must be accurate and current. Eberlein (1990) suggests that the issue of informed consent to release any information should be discussed with the client, and the counselling record indicate the content and nature of the consent discussion. In situations where a client is sent for an evaluation, there is an inherent invasion of that person's right to privacy. Clients have a right to know the extent of that invasion and to whom the information will be released.

Eberlein (1990) indicates that the following information should be recorded after each counselling session: a brief summary, the observations and understandings, the progress made, and the plans for further sessions. The counselling record is composed of two types of information: the information required by the agency/institution, sometimes known as formal notes, and working notes that the counsellor makes, often referred to as informal notes. Generally, formal notes belong to the institution/agency providing the service. Working notes should be used only by the counsellor and considered temporary. In private practice, all files belong to the counsellor; if the counsellor is employed

by an institution, to the institution. What is not clear is who owns the informal notes.

Additionally, Eberlein (1990) states that the main ethical issues related to computers are client privacy and assurance of confidentiality. He recommends use of a password by each counsellor to protect the computer files, and that screens be clear and equipment locked when they are not in use. He recommends backing up all files regularly, and carefully labelling all disks.

Multicultural populations

There are four relevant ethical principles when providing career and employment services to multicultural populations: stereotyping and discrimination, primary obligation, appropriate alternatives, and caution in evaluating. Counsellors should be aware of the negative impact of racial and sexual stereotyping and discrimination, including issues of colour, disability, ethnic background, gender, race, religion, SES, and sexual orientation. Counsellors are obligated to become familiar with the issues surrounding the minority groups and incorporate culturally relevant practices in their services. Also, members have a primary obligation to respect the integrity and promote the welfare of their clients. In addition, if members are not able to provide the service necessary, they are obligated to terminate the relationship and suggest appropriate alternatives. Lastly, members must exercise caution in evaluating and interpreting the performance of minority group members on standardized assessment instruments, when those minorities are not represented in the norm group. Also, counsellors are obligated to place the results of such instruments in a proper perspective with other relevant factors for their multicultural clients.

Westwood and Ishiyama (1991) identify several career/employment issues for minority-status clients. The first issue concerns language. When clients are unable to use their first language, Westwood and Ishiyama suggest the greatly increased possibilities of misunderstanding, incorrect information, and invalid assessments of clients and their goals. Multicultural populations may experience second language anxiety as self-doubt and self-consciousness when interacting with others. These issue may contribute to poor self-presentation and negative responses from others.

A second issue centres on the multicultural client's lack of career knowledge and employment skills. Multicultural clients may not have learned about the Canadian work world, how to make effective use of information sources, how make choices from a narrow range of jobs,

or how to access the job market. This lack of knowledge influences the ability of multicultural clients to make appropriate use of assessment devices due to their lack of familiarity with the activities covered in an interest inventory, level of understanding of the test items, and the lack of appropriate norms. Westwood and Ishiyana (1991) urge counsellors to assess their assumptions about occupational preferences tied to specific cultural groups that can shape their perceptions of the group and result in possible racial and ethnic discrimination.

A third issue concerns the counsellor's sensitivity to the psychological adjustment and employment experiences of multicultural groups. Westwood and Ishiyama (1991) suggest that the personal and emotional issues of such clients are likely to surface in employment counselling due to a lack of security, identity, and belonging. Relocating in a new culture, and the loss of previous employment often disturb and threaten the self-concept and personal identity that had been previously formed. The degree of acculturation, which may range from conformity to resistance to conflict to integration, will influence how the minority-culture immigrant is adjusting to life in the new culture.

Computer-assisted career guidance system (CACGS)

There are four ethically revelant principles that impact the use of computer-assisted career guidance: "responsibility" to maintain high standards of professional conduct, the use of "media" products that meet high standards, "respect" for the integrity of the client, and the use of "computer applications" in counselling. The ethical code stipulates that when using computer applications the client must be capable (intellectually, emotionally, physically) of using the application. The computer programs should be available for all clients. The program should be appropriate to the needs of the client who should understand the purpose and operation of the computer application. The counsellor must make every effort to correct possible misconceptions, and to discover inappropriate use and assess subsequent needs of clients after they have finished the computer application. Also, computer-stored data should be kept confidential and be destroyed after there is no further use for it.

Howland and Palmer (1992) highlight a number of ethical issues in the use of CACGS as outlined by the Association of Computer-Based Systems for Career Information (ACSCI). ACSCI suggests that for quality use of CACGS, the agency should have a theory of career development articulated and implemented, which the computer-based career guidance system complements. Further, they suggest that quality site management involves access, commitment of resources, physical environment, staffing, integration of computer-assisted career guidance into the total program,

public relations, and program evaluation. The ACSCI guidelines suggest that personnel who are regularly involved in using the system should have a thorough knowledge of its operation, its theoretical base, and practical interpretation. ACSCI calls for yearly training of primary staff users. In addition, ACSCI suggests that the occupational information database must be accurate, current, locally relevant, and nondiscriminatory.

Testing and assessment

There are five principles that may be relevant in testing and assessment. The client must be given the information necessary to have the "proper perspective" within which to place and interpret the results. The client has the right to be informed about the "purposes of testing," the results, the interpretations made, and the basis for the conclusions and recommendations made. Counsellors must consider the validity, reliability, and appropriateness of the instruments before selecting them. The counsellor must be "qualified to interpret" the results. The instruments must be "administered" as prescribed in the test manual.

Stewart (in press) outlines a number of misuses of instruments in career and employment counselling. Often results are not interpreted in terms of their construct validity, the same battery of instruments is given to all clients regardless of individual need, clients do not always understand the assumptions that instruments make,and should understand these assumptions if appropriate interpretation is to be made. In addition, counsellors do not always take the time to assess how clients incorporate the results of assessment into their self-concept. Proper orientation, use, and interpretation of assessment instruments would alleviate the possible ethical violations in career/employment practice.

Ethical decision-making

In this section, I will review the decision-making paradigm as outlined by the CGCA code of ethics, present a case-study, and analyse it using the paradigm.

The paradigm

The decision-making paradigm as outlined by the CGCA code of ethics has four phases: identification of the ethical issues; examination of the moral and ethical principles that are important in the situation; choice of the most important principles and taking action by generating alternatives, examining the benefits and risks of each, collecting

additional information if needed, and examining the probable outcomes of each course of action. Last, the decider must take action by developing a plan, evaluating it, and being prepared to correct any consequence that might occur from the action taken.

Case-study

A recent immigrant from South America reports to your office in HRD. She has just moved to Canada, and one of her responsibilities during the coming year is to become self-sufficient. She has three years of postsecondary training from an institution in her former country, where she was a geography teacher. She is glad to be in Canada and is prepared to take any kind of job she can get to become self-sufficient. However, one of her biggest barriers is her language. While she speaks some English, she experiences difficulties in making herself understood. She is sponsored by the Government of Canada, and in spite of your telling her about the parameters of confidentiality, she tells you that she secretly transfers much of her saving to a Canadian bank. She wants to take language training in an institution that serves HRD clients. You already have two people you are considering for such training, but there is funding available for only two individuals. There are a number of potentially ethically relevant principles peculiar to this case-study.

1. Stereotyping and discrimination
   You might tend to stereotype (her immigrant status, her language, lack of knowledge of Canadian culture) this woman in a way that discriminates against her.

2. Knowledge of counselling conditions
   Did you inform the client about what counselling is, what it involves, and its parameters and limitations? What are her expectations of you? Does the client's limited knowledge of the language impede this orientation?

3. Confidentiality
   Does the client know the limitations of confidentiality, particularly about declaring any resources she has to support herself while she is sponsored by the federal government?

4. Caution in evaluating
   You have enough knowledge and skill in evaluating this person's teaching ability as well as her skills and knowledge to be a geography teacher? Would you tend to put this person in any job because that

is what she appears to want? How can this person be properly evaluated in order to develop an action plan to find a job appropriate to her skills and interests?

5. Records
   What information will become part of the agency's records and what will remain as part of your notes? Who has access to this record?

Moral and ethical principles

There are three moral and ethical principles involved with this client. (1) Responsible caring. You have an obligation to respect and promote the integrity of the client. (2) Responsibility to society. You have an obligation to respect the laws of our country and to abide by them. (3) Not wilfully harming others. You have an obligation to consider all clients for whom you are responsible and to do them no harm.

Alternatives

There are two possible alternatives you could choose. Should you break confidentiality and report your knowledge of the bank account to immigration officials? One outcome of breaking confidentiality is the possibility that the woman will be deported. If you do not report the woman, she has a chance to become established in a country of her choice. The second alternative has several components. First, are you competent to deal effectively with this client? Should you refer the client to one who is knowledgeable about the culture and language from which this person comes? One outcome of having a counsellor who is knowledgeable about the country of origin is that the client would be getting quality service. By not referring this client, you may risk discrimination due to a lack of cultural sensitivity.

The second component involves referral for assessment only. Should you refer this person to an assessor who has knowledge of the educational system of the country of origin, in order to make appropriate decisions about the person's career and training needs? By sending this client to a counsellor skilled in assessing immigrants from this country, you have respected the dignity of this person and will have an appropriate client appraisal. By not referring her, you may not be able to carry out an appropriate appraisal, thus risking discrimination because you lack appropriate methods to conduct the assessment.

A possible action to be taken

You should refer this person to a counsellor who is knowledgeable about the culture and education system of the country of origin. You will provide an appropriate explanation of the conditions of counselling and conduct a culturally appropriate assessment with the client. This assessment will provide information upon which to make a decision about work that represents the best person-environment fit, thus helping to integrate this person into Canadian society. With a culturally sensitive counsellor, this client will experience a procedure that has respected her dignity and provided professional care.

Summary and conclusion

In this presentation, I have highlighted a number of the ethical principles found in the code of ethics of the Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association and have examined them in the context of professional practice likely to be encountered by a professional career/employment counsellor. I have presented the decision-making paradigm of CGCA and illustrated it by using a case-study and pointing out some of the potential courses of action. As the practice of career/employment counselling develops, it is incumbent on professionals to become acquainted with ethical principles and their implications for professional practice. With an increased knowledge of ethical practice, the various publics served by professional career/employment counsellors will be better served.

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Helping people who hate their jobs

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Introduction

Hate is a strong word. As a career consultant in private practice, and as host of a live talk show on careers, I often hear from adults who use this word to express dissatisfaction with their jobs. I have learned that I cannot address strong negative attitudes about work without considering job compatibility.

This paper offers a client-centred approach for career consultants and counsellors who work with adults in midcareer transition. The role of the career consultant in this situation is to help clients help themselves through effective decision making about career planning and repositioning. The outcome of this approach is more self-directed clients who are more capable of making career decisions and managing multiple careers over their working lives.

The emphasis in this paper is on preparing clients to be counselled. I will examine some of the most typical job complaints and their underlying causes, before outlining an effective approach to treatment.

The roots of job dissatisfaction

Good grades, good test scores, good school, good job equal success! This is a simple formula that is followed every day everywhere in the lives of many young individuals. And the truth is, it serves them quite well during their twenties, as they seek security and structure, while also seeking the approval of parents, peers, and society in general.

Surprisingly few of us purposefully chose the work we do today. Either we drifted into it ("I saw an ad in the newspaper, got the job, here I am ten years later."), or gravitated into it ("The division I was in closed down and I had to take a transfer or quit"), or graduated into it ("I took computer programming because it seemed like a good idea at the time"), or were intimidated into it ("I wanted to be a musician, but my dad, the doctor, insisted on accounting").

We learn early in life to act on what others say, value, and expect. Many individuals who have faithfully followed this formula find themselves a long way down the wrong road before realizing they did not actually choose their work.

And yet, any of us can appear to be successful at whatever we choose to do if we are under 30 years of age because these years are usually characterized by sheer will and determination. Individuals will push

and push to conform to a certain job description. They get ahead on the basis of high self-discipline and competitive spirit.

But a strange thing starts to happen between the ages of 30 and 35: bodies change. The change is sometimes subtle because it occurs at an energetic level. Physiologists tell us that we peak biologically at age 30. There is a point where our bodies no longer produce the boundless energy that helped us get things done in our twenties. We don't bounce back as quickly from our setbacks. As our energy level declines, we can no longer coast on drive and enthusiasm.

Suddenly, the things that seemed effortless in our twenties now drain us in our thirties and forties. A vague and general uneasiness may translate into job dissatisfaction and motivate an individual to seek career counselling. Suffering mid-career adults may appear in your office and present complaints about their work situation.

The most common complaint I hear is a lack of job fulfilment. They feel underemployed, unchallenged, or simply unused, or they've reached a plateau in their careers, or they obtain no meaning from their work, or they feel they don't fit in with their organization. In short, they express a lack of significance in their lives, and feel they are going nowhere.

Stress or burnout is another common complaint. Many people feel bored, tired, even exhausted. Others complain about being overworked, underpaid, or pulled in many directions at the same time. Their energy level is low and they complain about feeling drained and emptied of any enthusiasm for life. They are just hanging in there.

Other common complaints include a lack of job security due to downsizing, or organizational changes involving a change in job duties. Many clients express dislike for their colleagues, managers, or companies.

How to help

How can we assist clients who complain about their work? The first step is to assess the underlying cause of the complaint. Very often, there is a tendency to assume that every complaint is the expression of an undesirable and self-defeating psychological trait.

Psychology permeates counselling. Counsellors are trained to look for dysfunction and tend to find what they are looking for: low self-esteem, mental-health problems, poor work habits, unrealistic expectations, low assertiveness, lack of self-discipline, and high subjectivity are all

common dysfunctions that may be obvious to a counsellor when a client presents a complaint.

Focusing on these common dysfunctions will draw attention to a client's weakness, which may only reinforce the underlying cause of the complaint. In most cases, I do not focus on the psychological or behavioural weakness of a client; instead, I want to give a client real hope that positive change is practical and attainable.

I find that the majority of clients who complain about their work are those whose education, training, and ambition are on a collision course with their natural talents. In order to avoid the damage inherent in such a collision, I focus on helping my clients understand five principles that are the key to job satisfaction.

1. The principle of natural talent

The first step in helping a client is to separate innate talents from other aptitudes, interests, values, skills, personality traits, and education. Individuals—including career counsellors—confuse their skills and knowledge with their natural talents.

It is important for clients to learn to differentiate between what they have as a natural talent and what they have acquired as a skill through education or on-the-job experience. This distinction is crucial for career success.

For example, some individuals will pursue computer programming as a career even though they have no natural talent for mathematics, developing procedures, or problem solving. Through sheer will and determination they may land a job and even win promotions.

They can function for a long time doing what they have learned, as opposed to what they do naturally and effortlessly. As they grow older, they look across their workstation and see certain *stars* in the company become increasingly effective, doing work faster and better, and having more time to spend on other things.

But midcareer adults who are operating through training rather than natural talent have to spend as much time as they ever did, or more, to get results, because the energy and determination of youth is not there to carry them through. Their career goals, acquired by skill and knowledge, can contradict use of their natural talents. Increasingly, these individuals will rely on self-discipline to compensate for a lack of talent. Invariably, they survive, but don't thrive, in a job. Inevitably, they lead worklives of futility instead of fulfilment. They often express *hate* for their jobs.

Take public speaking, as a skill example. I have run into dozens of people who have spent years in public speaking clubs because they think it will help them advance in their jobs—but in most cases all they've developed is a high tolerance for the tremendous stress they experience when preparing to speak. All the training in the world cannot put a person without natural public-speaking skills on the same level as someone with a natural talent that has been honoured and developed over time with rewarding public-speaking experiences.

The same goes for people who invest a lot of time, energy, and money in time-management courses, or business-writing courses, or memory courses, or sales-training courses. Midcareer transitions are frightening, and many individuals renew their efforts and commit to more training or job experience along a career path based on skills instead of talents. My advice to clients caught in this self-improvement merry-go-round is to get off it. Don't punish yourself, I say, with discretionary time and money by trying to develop skills that you were probably never meant to develop anyway. This fact remains that individuals who have not identified and developed their natural talents will soon grown frustrated with their lot in life. Too often we try to excel in areas for which we lack natural talent. Our unrealistic ambitions lead us into a frenzy of high-energy activity that tries to fill our work with more experience and more education.

When explaining this principle to clients, I often draw a picture of a cart in front of a horse. During our career, the cart piles up with tools, even as it becomes impossible to drag the horse behind it any longer. The trick is to identify the horse—the power, strength, and energy that derives from talent. I focus on helping my clients put the horse where it belongs—in front of the cart.

2. The uniqueness principle

Each individual is a unique combination of talent, aptitudes, education, experience, and character. The truth is that each individual performs a job in accordance with a complex and unique pattern of personal motivations. The key word here is *pattern*. It means that each person is greater than the total of the parts, but when all the parts come together they create something unique and special, even powerful. In my opinion, this is an area largely overlooked in career counselling. We test to define parts, like interests, personality traits, and skills. We rely on technology (tests) to produce answers. But career counselling is art as much as science.

Many individuals who seek out career counselling are confused about who and what they are in terms of work. They are crying out for clarity. Helping them find that clarity is our task as counsellors. We act as a mirror for our clients. We reflect back to them who and what they are

in terms of their *right* work. I focus on the facts, people, and events that reveal true motivational patterns in individuals. In short, I focus on story. My clients tell and write stories about those times in their lives when they are doing what they enjoy most and doing it well.

I analyse their stories for a red thread. I am looking for a central theme or thrust in their stories that reveals the essence of who and what they are in terms of work. It is the main purpose they seek to achieve with their lives, and they use all the other parts of their unique pattern to achieve it.

This process can help to identify and define what is unique about our clients. What makes them different from all other job seekers in the same field? I want to give my clients the ability to approach a potential employer and communicate with clarity and confidence what makes them unique. This increases their chances of a successful career transition or job search.

3. The where-and-what principle

Career decision-making often involves helping people choose the best work setting (where to work) and the best position within that setting (what to do). These are two independent decisions.

The ideal formula for a career match should include the following three ingredients. First, a person should be attracted to the occupation (interests). Second, a person should highly value the work being done (values). Finally, innate abilities (natural talents) should be the foundation for the day-to-day grind of work. With this combination, people should expect that over their lifetime they will achieve career mastery with something to show for their years and labour.

I use the IDAK Career Match Assessment System to help my clients select the right setting and the right position. It evaluates interests, values, and natural talents, which are matched to career options in business/industry, government, military, non-profit, and ministry organizations. Each client receives 20–50 very specific career match options out of 60,000 possibilities.

4. The 60:40 principle

Many individuals labour in jobs in which 50–90 percent of their time is taken up with tasks that require *can-do* skills involving tedious and humdrum work. If a person becomes stuck in this routine, burnout and stress are inevitable. These people may express hate for their jobs.

When considering a career change, these same individuals may also expect to spend 80–100 percent of their time in satisfying, rewarding,

and fulfilling work. I help clients understand that, at best, 60 percent of work hours will be challenging and will provide a sense of growth and fulfilment.

This 60:40 split will energize individuals. However, they need to be aware of the likelihood that many times this ratio may slip to 40:60, in which case they may feel drained by brief periods of routine work. I help them to correlate their natural talents with specific job duties. With this information, they can keep their job description aligned with what makes them happy and productive in the workplace, so that they operate 60 percent of the time in a mode that comes naturally and effortlessly to them.

This becomes increasingly important as they grow older and have less and less energy available to them. Career masters make it look so easy precisely because their core job duties are performed naturally and effortlessly.

5. The leadership principle

Traditionally, there has been only one ladder of career advancement: the commonly understood management role of supervising others. Some of my clients express hate for a job that requires them to make the hard decisions that go with being in charge. Supervision often requires the resolution of conflict through confrontation, such as firing an insubordinate. Very often these managers want to give up the *pain* of management, but not the prestige and status.

A promotion from the trenches to the command post often results in the Peter Principle, when you rely on how well the employee has performed in current and past jobs as an indicator of promotability to a different position. Furthermore, management's preference for skill and knowledge as a basis for predicting job performance can contradict natural talent. Technical competence is often used as an indicator of managerial competence. The two skills are entirely different. Engineers, for example, are often promoted to supervisors, sometimes with disastrous results.

Organizations need to find ways to reward their most valuable players without bouncing them up to management and away from what they do best. Individuals who understand their talents and motivations can help their organizations develop appropriate leadership ladders.

Some organizations have initiated a dual ladder of leadership to acknowledge high achievers not necessarily treading a management path. The first leadership ladder is the traditional one normally termed *management*. It is a supervisory leadership ladder. The individual climbs

the rungs of the ladder, moving from front-line management to middle management up to the executive level. This career path requires higher and higher levels of responsibility for coordinating the activities of others. The armed forces call it *command* responsibility.

The second ladder is dramatically different. It is a specialist leadership ladder. The military discovered that some soldiers were highly competent in handling radar equipment, or some other facet of military operations, like helicopter operations, intelligence, etc. These specialists were given new ranks to allow them a ladder to climb to higher levels of proficiency and leadership.

It is a question of determining whether the person is suited for higher levels of supervisory responsibility, or whether the person has a knack, talent, or passion that can be polished to help become a star and, thereby, rise up the specialist ladder to become a person of significant influence. Actually, there are more specialist leadership opportunities than command positions.

Specialists are influencers. Think of doctors, dentists, professors, politicians, financial planners, teachers, authors, and lawyers. What these diverse occupations have in common is the capacity to shape opinions, to influence decision making. But there is no responsibility to coordinate, oversee, or manage other individuals.

Without the realization that there are two ladders of leadership, individuals may misguide their own career and reinstate the Peter Principle of rising to the highest level of incompetence, which may foster a hate for their job.

Conclusion

When confronted by clients who express strong negative attitudes about their job, it is important to prepare them to be counselled. I clarify what I can and cannot do for them. I alert them to the underlying causes of job dissatisfaction. I want to minimize their stress and burnout, and maximize their career goals, hopes and dreams.

But I do not have a magic wand to make their dream job suddenly appear. Even with a working knowledge of the 60,000 career fields offered by the IDAK system, I cannot find the perfect match without tremendous work on the part of the client. The job hunt will take time, and clients will get discouraged. That is why clients need information that gives them confidence and hope.

As career consultants and counsellors, we have opportunities to empower individuals with a realistic self-image based on natural talents. This information can help them avoid occupational stereotyping, enhance their career planning and repositioning, identify job duties that cause stress and burnout, and help them adjust to organizational policies and job performance standards.

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Informed-choice counselling: The key to success in training

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Introduction

Rapid economic, demographic, and technological changes are transforming the nature of work and the knowledge and skills necessary for employment. As a result, a necessary step toward increased employability for many adult Albertans is education and training directed toward employment. Budget restraints, funding caps in government-sponsored programs, and perhaps most significantly, intense labour market competition, underscore the significant role of informed-choice decision making when assisting individuals toward education and training goals.

Responding to an increasing need for an accessible, equitable student assistance program to assist financially disadvantaged adult Albertans gain the training they need to make the transition to work, the Skills Development Program (SDP) was implemented in 1993. Following the department's belief that identification of a clearly defined employment goal and a plan to achieve the goal are predictors of success in training, informed-choice counselling was incorporated as a requirement of this program.

It is from the context of training through the Skills Development Program that the informed-choice counselling process will be examined. What follows is a discussion of how Advanced Education and Career Development (AE&CD) is enabling clients to be successful in training, by incorporating informed-choice counselling in a student assistance program.

Historical perspective

Advanced Education and Career Development has responded to the changing labour market by developing a skilled, educated, and competitive workforce. Over time, substantial resources have been committed to adult development programs and services directed toward this goal. Creating a system that ensures access to quality learning opportunities throughout the province, enabling individuals to obtain and retain work and pursue further education and training, has been one strategy for developing a globally competitive workforce.

For over two decades, student financial programs assisted financially disadvantaged adult students to pursue basic, essential, and employment-directed education and training. These programs were provided by three provincial government sources: Student Finance Board student loans, Alberta Vocational Training grants, and Alberta Family and Social Services Supports for Independence (welfare) benefits. In 1993, student

assistance programs were rationalized to create a single program—the Skills Development Program.

Program implementation

The objective of the SDP is to provide financially disadvantaged adults with access to education and training they need to achieve independence through employment. The SDP provides support as a first step toward entrance or re-entrance to the workforce. SDP includes academic upgrading (grades 10–12), adult basic education (grades 7–9), literacy and numeracy, and English as a second language. The focus of this discussion refers primarily to the processes used with clients seeking academic upgrading.

Principles

Key principles guiding the development and future direction of the SDP program include:

Investment

Education and training are required to ensure that Alberta's workforce is competitive and the economy is strong.

Employability

Basic foundation skills are essential for Albertans to enter or re-enter the workforce and to participate in further skill-based training. Many adult Albertans lack these basic foundation skills. The goal of the program is to enable individuals to obtain and retain employment.

Access

Financially disadvantaged adults require access to training to reduce their dependency on income support systems. A grant provides an incentive for financially disadvantage individuals to acquire basic foundation skills and move toward self-sufficiency.

Shared responsibility

The cost of education is a responsibility shared by students, their families, and the taxpayer. As employability and income-earning potential increase, students should assume greater responsibility for the cost of their postsecondary education through student loans.

Partnership

Partnership among schools, AE&CD, and AF&SS is essential to program success.

Need

Students must need training in basic foundation skills in order to obtain employment.

Informed choice

Students must demonstrate that they are ready, willing, and able to succeed in training that leads to employment. They must show that they have a realistic, attainable career goal, and an appropriate, expedient training plan to achieve their goal.

Integration

School is not the only and not necessarily the best option for unemployed Albertans. Student assistance for institutionally based study will be integrated with other government initiatives to meet the diverse needs of disadvantaged Albertans.

Partnerships

Effective delivery of the SDP relies upon the partnership and cooperation of four parties: individuals (students); schools/training institutions; authorized counsellors, and students finance administration. Each partner has roles and responsibilities in program delivery.

SDP program processes

Individuals who are receiving welfare access the program through AF&SS. All other Albertans seek assistance from AE&CD. Program eligibility and informed decision making are handled by authorized counsellors from AE&CD and AF&SS. Within AE&CD, authorized counselling is performed by career consultants. Processes and functions described in this article are from the context of AE&CD career consultants.

The SDP is a one-time funding opportunity. Assistance is based on successful progress in training. Students who do not make successful progress in their studies jeopardize current and future opportunities for student assistance under this program.

General program eligibility criteria

Applicant must:

- demonstrate financial need;
- demonstrate need for training in order to obtain employment;

- be an adult;
- be an Alberta resident;
- be out of the regular K–12 school system for a minimum one year;
- be unemployed and unskilled;
- demonstrate informed choice: be ready, willing, and able to participate and succeed in studies; intend to seek employment upon training completion; have a realistic, attainable career goal supported by a direct, expedient training plan to achieve the goal.

Authorized counsellors determine an individual's general program eligibility and are responsible for ensuring that the individual has made an informed decision regarding goals and training plans. A written recommendation from an authorized counsellor is required for all individuals seeking assistance under the SDP program. If an individual is not recommended for training, either as a result of general program ineligibility, or because he or she is not deemed to have made an informed decision, it is the responsibility of the authorized counsellor to help the client explore reasonable alternatives.

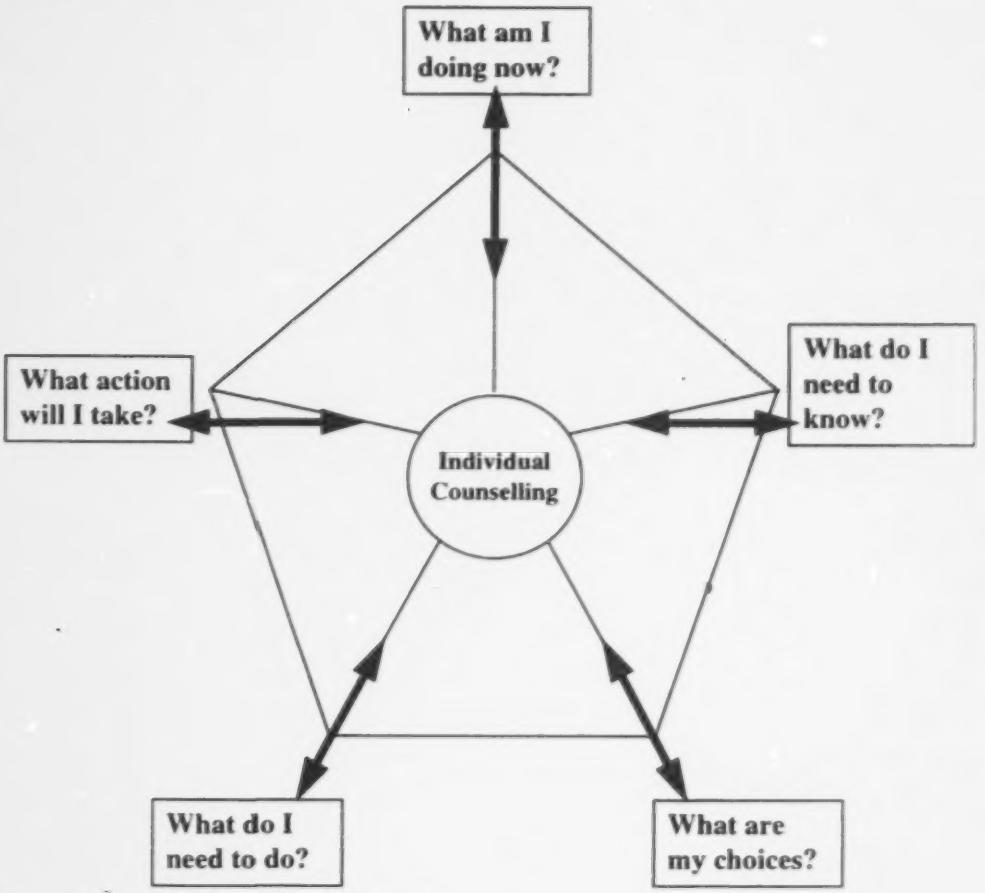
The final step in the application for SDP program assistance is completion of an application form, detailing financial needs, and school information. This is confirmed and signed by the training institute. The entire process may take a couple of months.

Defining informed-choice counselling

Informed decision making has long been embraced by AE&CD as a focus of individual career counselling. Career counselling within AE&CD has been described as a process that helps the client make informed work-related decisions and improves the client's ability to make career transitions. Informed-choice counselling is an aspect of career counselling that results in an informed decision about establishing goals for training and employment.

As with all aspects of career counselling services, informed-choice counselling follows principles of departmental service delivery of being client centred, responsive to needs, and adaptable in addressing a diverse range of needs. The individual career-counselling framework from which informed choice counselling flows is shown in figure 1.

Figure 1 Career planning


What am I doing now?
What do I need to know?
What action will I take?
Individual Counselling
What do I need to do?
What are my choices?

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Informed-choice counselling within an educational planning framework

Determining general program eligibility is a component of informed-choice counselling. However, its primary function is to help clients assess their employability and make informed decisions about the steps required to increase long-term participation in the competitive labour market. As a result of counselling, other options than education may found to be more appropriate to client needs and more effective in leading to employment. Therefore the Skills Development Program may not be included in the action plan.

Authorized counsellors use their assessment and counselling expertise to determine if an individual is able to proceed with an employment-directed educational training plan. Solid informed-choice counselling

is critical to the success of clients entering training. Authorized counsellors are accountable for guiding individuals through informed decision making, and for recommending training only when satisfied that an individual is ready, willing, and able to successfully complete training.

Many individuals are not deemed ready or appropriate for training. As part of informed-choice counselling, authorized counsellors assist clients explore alternative paths to employment, identify current barriers to training and employment, and develop action plans to overcome barriers.

Individuals are considered to have made an informed choice about education and training when they demonstrate they: (a) are ready, willing, and able to participate and be successful in school; (b) are destined for the labour market (training is part of an overall plan for gaining employment); and (c) have completed career planning that leads to a clearly defined, attainable occupational goal, supported by a direct and expedient training plan to achieve the goal.

In each category, a number of factors are considered that support or threaten success in training:

(a) Is the client ready, willing, and able?

- Attitude and motivation toward participating in training and achieving the goal
- Realistic perception of self and abilities; sufficient confidence and self-esteem to achieve goals
- Health—self and family (mental, physical, and emotional)
- Self-management skills including decision-making, and problem-solving ability, stress management
- Stable relationship(s) and support from family and friends
- Stable home environment—adequate accommodation
- Transportation and day care available if required
- Academic capacity to reach goals: learning style, learning ability or disability; academic history; placement testing completed; study skills developed or awareness of resources to develop study skills
- Substance abuse/addictions—self or family or significant others
- Financial situation: money management skills; sufficient funding available to cover basic needs
- Outstanding financial obligations
- Upcoming legal actions such as court or custody hearings
- Significant pending life "transitions": pregnancy, relocation to attend school, pending marriage or separation or divorce
- Patterns of incomplete activities

- Client awereness of her needs, roles, and responsibilities as a student: attendance and academic progress; school rules and regulations and instructor expectations
- Client awareness of the resources and services available to assist him with his success as a student
- This is the best time for client to pursue studies
- There is an established back-up plan

(b) Is the client destined for the labour market?

- Client views training as part of an overall plan for gaining employment.
- There is a clear, definable employment goal.
- Client demonstrates the life-management skills and positive attitude needed to succeed at work.
- Training is the most expedient route to achieve the employment goal.
- The employment goal is realistic based on client's ability, labour market conditions, health issues, and life situation.

(c) Does the client hae a realistic career plan?

- Client can clearly articulate ccupational goals and a plan to achieve these goals.
- Client can demonstrate the relationship between her occupational goals and her skills, interests, abilities, values.
- Client demonstrates that his chosen goal is realistic.
- Client demonstrates the occupational research completed.
- Client has developed a back-up plan.

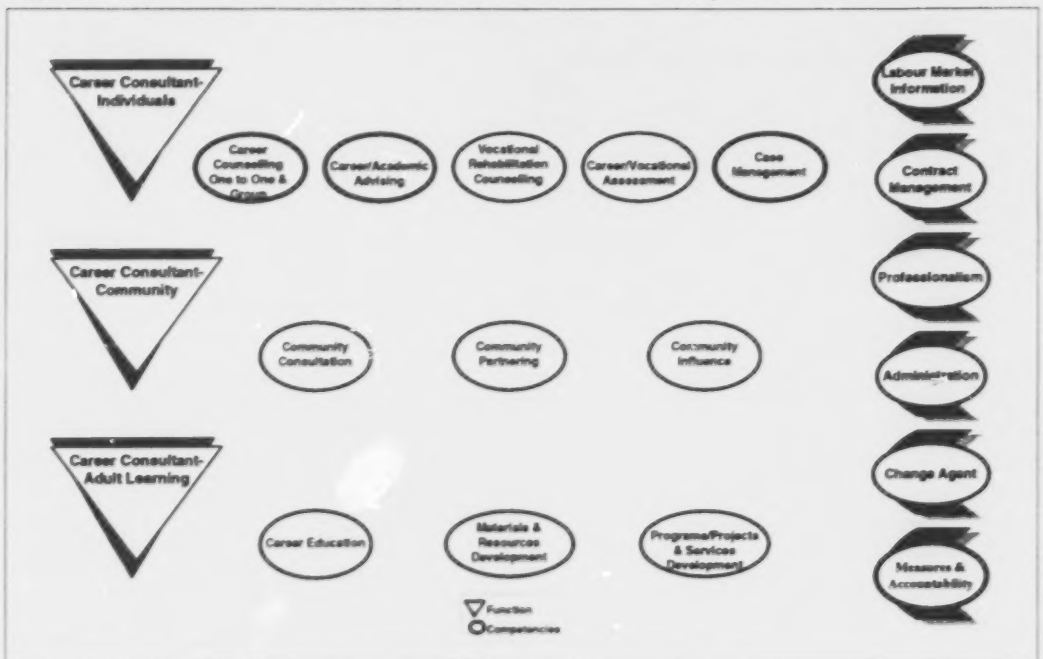
Informed-choice counselling: Career consultant competencies

A career consultant in AE&CD is a proactive professional working to strengthen the Alberta labour market by assisting individuals to enter, adjust to, or maintain employment. There are three primary functions of the career consultant as shown in figure 2: (1) career consultant—individuals; (2) career consultant—community; (3) career consultant—adult learning. Seventeen competencies are derived from these functions. Each competency represents a cluster of skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to be effective.

These competencies are made up of eleven function competencies and six common competencies. The career-consultant competencies shown

in figure 2 that are fundamental to effective informed-choice counselling are career counselling one-to-one and group; career/academic advising; case management; labour market information; and measures and accountability.

Figure 2 Consultant competency model



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Informed-choice counselling and the career services delivery continuum

Informed-choice counselling is not completed in isolation from other career services. The career services delivery continuum consists of an array of career services that include:

- labour-market information centres—multimedia, self-directed career and employment resource centres;
- group services such as workshops including Career Planning, Understanding Labour Market Information, Work Search, Return to Learning, and Entrepreneurial Spirit;
- self-directed publications produced by AE&CD that address career, educational, and employment issues, as well as labour-market information and financial planning;
- individual and group career counselling.

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Measures and accountability

Albertans expect results to be measured and reported when public dollars are spent. In the 1994, government White Paper *New Directions for Adult Learning in Alberta*, the accountability goal suggested the need for outcomes, measures, and standards.

> ***Accountability**: Requires providers to measure and report on performance through an accountability framework to advise Albertans of results achieved in publicly funded learning opportunities.*

The expectation of accountability in all government programs and services was clear. Discussion about accountability, therefore, must address the aspects of informed-choice counselling as a deliverable of career services, as well as overall accountability of the Skills Development Program.

In its commitment to improved accountability among all departmental services, AE&CD decided to focus first on individual career counselling, the service that uses the most human and fiscal resources, and would be most likely to produce lasting results. This proved to be a formidable task, as career counselling experts have for some time identified career counselling as the most challenging of all career services to assess. Using the groundwork and principles by which individual career counselling could be defined, and drawing upon three other models of counselling developed by three Canadian experts—Drs. Amundsen, Patsula, and Lecomte—the department was able to build a model of accountability.

Historically, clients have not been tracked and the results of career counselling have not been measured by AE&CD. The current process has identified reliable outcomes and qualitative and quantitative measures by which accountability can be determined. Through much collaboration with partners in service delivery, adaptation of existing practices, and enhancements to computer capabilities, the results of individual counselling intervention are now being measured.

Employability is one of the key outcomes of the adult learning system. AE&CD's focus with individual career counselling has been to assist individuals, through informed decision making, to improve their employability. Career counselling outcomes are defined as the following employability dimensions: career and occupational decision making, skill development/training/education, and workforce participation. Subsets of these dimensions are employability activities: career and

occupational decision making, implemention of plans for skill development/training/education, and participation in the workforce.

The ultimate goal of career counselling is to enable clients to achieve increased employability, resulting in increased potential for self-sufficiency. Employment is one measure of self-sufficiency. The measures of employability are completion of objectives or action plans developed in counselling sessions, application to training/education, and applications to work.

Overall accountability of the Skills Development Program as a whole is a substantial issue, since the program involves a four-way partnership with different measures and outcome expectations for each partner.

Students are accountable for attending school regularly, making academic progress, and completing their studies. Completion of their program is one measure of success. Enrolment in further education or training or obtaining employment are further measures of success.

Educational institutions are accountable for providing quality education and training, and for meeting the course requirements as set out in the student's training plan summary.

Authorized counsellors are responsible for recommending only those students who meet overall program eligibility and who are considered to be ready, willing, and able to succeed in training. Each authorized counsellor has an individual authorization code, which can be used to evaluate the success rate of her recommendations.

AF&SS is accountable for case-load reduction. Assisting clients in pursuing education and training plans under the SDP results in reduced case-load.

AE&CD is currently measuring outcomes of the Skills Development Program. These outcomes will be evaluated and the results will drive recommendations for future program delivery.

AE&CD strengths and accomplishments, over a two-year period

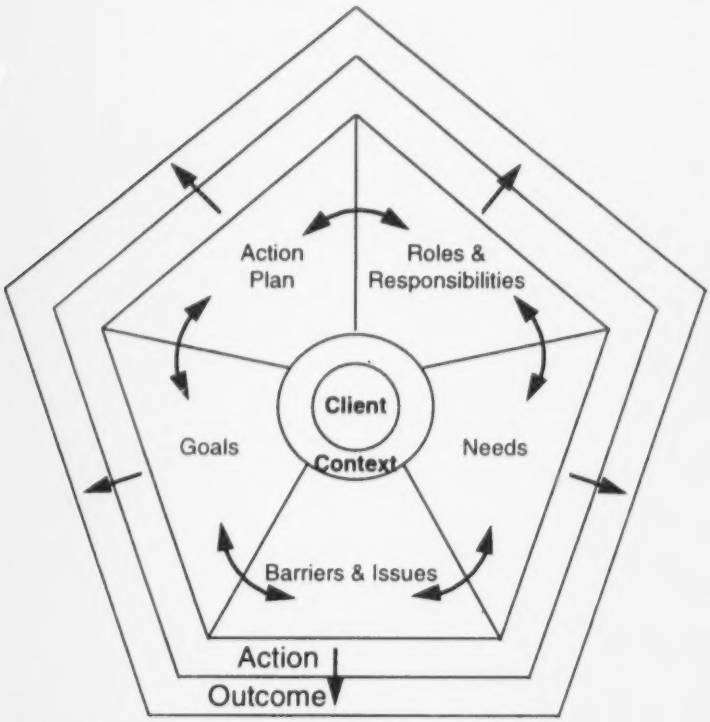
1. Overall acceptance of measures and accountability process
2. Acceptance of prioritized target groups and the need to screen applicants for funding and service
3. Determination of what career counselling can achieve, particularly with regard to improving client employability

4. Collaboration to link outcomes to realistic measures, and how to document results
5. Survival of paper documentation, the transition to electronic documentation, and—for many counsellors—the transition to direct computer entry
6. Have trained, re-trained, and are committed to training until all levels of staff at all career-development centres are competent
7. Are the only provider currently tracking the process and outcomes of informed-choice counselling
8. Actually track qualitative outcomes (the "soft" stuff)
9. Can separate counsellor success and failure from client unwillingness, withdrawal, or failure, giving a more accurate reason for incomplete results
10. Have been reaffirmed in our belief that focusing on assessing only academic capacity for returning students, at the expense of looking at "readiness" and "willingness" (i.e., personal awareness, preparedness, motivation, commitment) does not achieve better placement or better success rates
11. Financial assessment functions of Student Finance Board have merged with service delivery in career-development centres

Our weaknesses and problems

1. The emphasis of the three providers in the initial assessment differs, and there are also different expectations and objectives for the three delivery partners of Informed Choice Counselling.
2. The requirements for documenting information on informed choice are not standardized for all three providers.
3. A difficulty is still evident in many clients, and some counsellors/consultants, in shifting to an increased expectation for client accountability. However, attendance, academic progress, and course completion are now results tracked on every funded student. Figure 3 demonstrates the client-focus perspective.
4. There is a lingering perception by some clients, and a few providers, that SDP is an alternative to welfare.

Figure 3 The client-focus perspective



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Recommendations: Next steps

1. Establishment for an SDP accountability framework, which identifies measures and data required to ensure SDP is administered in a way consistent with departmental business plan
2. More study of placement practices
3. Improved and more systematic data collection
4. Standardization of information collected on all SDP participants, regardless of referral partner, including identifying only one form for use by all authorized counsellors
5. More options for clients such as part-time student assistance, which allows students to work and receive some assistance
6. Centralize electronic storage of all informed-choice data
7. Review difficulty of assessing some eligibility requirements (i.e., ability to learn)

In another year we should have a record of more significant accomplishments with both the Skills Development Program, and with our primary interest as authorized counsellors—informed-choice counselling.

Kegan's constructive developmental framework for adult careers transition

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Introduction

Career development has come to be viewed as a lifelong series of choices that people make to express their changing needs (Super 1984). This more dynamic understanding of career has replaced the rather static conception that had been the legacy of the largely trait-and-factor approach to career development and counselling. Neo-Piagetian cognitive theories of adult development such as those of William Perry (1970), Lawrence Kohlberg (1981), and Robert Kegan (1982, 1994) have outlined explanations of the cognitive readiness needed for individuals to be able to successfully address life changes, such as those involved in career transition. These cognitive processes have been labelled "knowledge structures" or "meaning-making balances," and they frame people's approach to problem solving.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the the implications of Robert Kegan's Constructive-Developmental theory (1982, 1994) for career development and career counselling, particularly for adults who are in career transition. Kegan maintains that a person's meaning-making framework, or constructive developmental "order" contributes significantly to adaptiveness in the face of challenge. This clearly has important implications for successful management of career transition.

Career can be considered an act of meaning-making, or meaning-construction. Mary Baird Carlsen, who wrote *Meaning-Making: Therapeutic Processes in Adult Development* (1988) actually defines career as "carrier of meaning." Donald Super (1984) recognized the importance of meaning-making when he proposed that self-concept theory is the cement that holds career development together. The individual is seen as the organizer of his or her experience. This parallels the constructivist theory assumption that individuals actively construct their own reality (Mahoney 1991, McAuliffe 1993, Peavy 1993, Savickas 1993).

Central to meaning construction are the Piagetian notions of assimilation and accommodation (Kegan 1982, 1994; McAuliffe 1993), or what Lyddon (1990) calls "first order change" and "second order change." Incorporating new experiences into existing cognitive frameworks is assimilation, or first order change. Changing and expanding structures to meet new input demands is accommodation, or second order change. Career transition often demands accommodating activity because people are continually faced with making new decisions, redefining their purposes, and establishing a new relationship with the environment. If the person has cognitive structures that are more complex and inclusive, he or she will have greater flexibility in adapting to both internal and external life-career changes.

Kegan's constructive developmental theory

Kegan's constructive developmental theory is perhaps the most inclusive of the cognitive-developmental theories, explaining how the self constructs meaning across cognitive, affective, and moral domains. Development is seen as an evolution of meaning-making activity. As individuals move through what are called "balances" (1982) or "orders" (1994) in development, they achieve increasingly more expansive, open, inclusive understandings of themselves and the world.

Five orders of consciousness

Kegan outlines five stages or orders of consciousness summarized in the following table.

Order	Subject	Object	Culture	Approximate age
1	Impulses	Sensation	Parenting	2 to 6 years
2	Needs	Impulses	Role-recognition	6 years to teens
3	Relationships	Needs	Mutuality	Teens to adult
4	Work or role	Relationships	Self-authorship	Adult
5	Inter-individuation	Work or role	Intimacy	Adult

In each order, the person is "embedded" in a different perspective of what is self (subject) and what is other (object). The way a person views the issue of what is self and what is other essentially defines the underlying logic or "psychologic" of meaning. The movement from one order to the next is characterized by a shift of the embeddedness culture from subject (self) to object (other). The person shifts, for example, from "I am my needs" (second order) to "I have needs" (third order), or "I am my relationships" (third order) to "I have relationships" (fourth order), or "I am my work or role" (fourth order) to "I have work or a role" (fifth order). Below is a more detailed explanation of the three orders that comprise most adults' meaning-making: third, fourth, and fifth.

Third order

People who make meaning from the third order are embedded in their relationships with others; they cannot truly generate a perspective outside of the relationships in which they live. These people are "parcelled out" to their reference groups—peers, parents, bosses, political organizations, social milieus, and religious groups. There is no centre in the self where a person can author a theory of how things should be—rather, it is some other's (or others') view of how things

should be. A person in the third order is looking for a choice or path endorsed by peers, parents, employers, or others. In relation to career, this stage is often encountered as work choices or values that clearly come from sources other than the person's inner convictions. Many of these individuals make choices based on unquestioned assumptions about appropriate fields and roles for someone in their reference group.

The limits of the third order are reached when the environment (which includes people) challenges the individual to come up with a point of view. College or university provides such an environment, so does career transition. The conflicting voices of all one's reference groups threaten to overwhelm the person, and the only way out is to find a centre in oneself. This is a place where the self can be first discovered, then expressed, through new career goals, for example.

Fourth order

The strength of the fourth order lies in individuals' abilities to identify their purpose, to independently articulate a position, to run themselves somewhat as a fixed institution. People in the fourth order will often pursue a career or role single-mindedly. They possess a self-authored voice, which allows them to speak from their own centre and to act relatively autonomously. They know what they want, and they go after it.

The independent, self-assertive mode of this fourth order is seen as a step forward from the externality of the third order. Yet it is also a limitation, for embeddedness in a particular role does not allow for self-correction and reflection on the larger purposes of one's life. The person *is* the occupation or role, rather than *having* it. This identification of self with the forms it is currently expressing tends to be self-perpetuating. Further exploration or challenge can be stifled by the person's single focus; she or he is closed to new information. As people begin to move from this fourth order toward the fifth, there comes a sense of unease, which can be experienced as various forms of career distress, "mid-life crisis" or relationship breakdown. "Is this all there is?" is a frequently asked question.

Fifth order

Development beyond the fourth order can be described as movement in which the self no longer is its particular form, but instead has forms "like figures upon a ground, a moving ground more committed to culturing a process than preserving a product" (Kegan 1982, p. 204). The fifth order is characterized by openness to contradiction and flexible movement. This is a major asset to people in transition, because it gives them the greatest number of options for responding to their internal needs as well as to the external environment. This order allows people to be self-transforming.

The subject-object interview

Kegan and his associates have developed the Subject-Object Interview (Lahey et al. 1985), a method to determine a person's order of consciousness (stage of operating). In the Interview, the participant is given a set of ten cards with different topics written on them (e.g. *angry, success, change*). He or she is asked to note two or three things that relate to the topic in their recent experience. The interviewer then probes for the meaning of the events noted by the participant, and uses the responses to make a judgement about the person's meaning-making structure (order of consciousness). The entire interview takes from 60 to 90 minutes to complete. Analysis of the transcribed interview according to the procedures outlined by Lahey et al. yields a score relating to the participant's order, or level of meaning organization.

In over our heads

In his recent book, Kegan (1994) argues that the expectations placed on people today are generally fourth order, or self-authoring, expectations. For example, workers are expected to

1. make their own work (rather than see it as owned and created by an employer),
2. be self-monitoring (rather than looking to others to define problems, initiate adjustments, or evaluate outcomes), and
3. take responsibility for what happens internally and externally (rather than see present circumstances and future possibilities as caused by someone else).

Kegan makes a similar case for expectations in most areas of modern life: parenting, learning, relationships, psychotherapy, and leadership. All are demanding fourth-order behaviours. However, Kegan summarizes the results from a number of research studies indicating that one half to two thirds of adults are not yet operating at this fourth order of consciousness. He also asserts that only a very small percentage of adults ever reach the fifth order of consciousness, and that this never occurs before the age of 40. Therefore, most adults are "in over their heads," that is, they are being asked to perform at levels beyond their current functioning.

It is a major challenge for adults to meet this fourth-order expectation to be self-directed. The demand to understand the difference between what we value and what we "should value," to set our own goals and standards, to have a sense of ourselves as "co-creators" of the culture that shapes us seems to require an actual reconstitution of the self, a movement to a different order of meaning-making. The issue for

practitioners, then, is how to help this majority of people still operating at the third order, particularly those faced with the challenges of career transition.

Implications for career transition

We have begun a research study at the University of Victoria to investigate the application of Kegan's theory to adult career transition (the research team consists of myself and Susan Bryant, a doctoral candidate). Preliminary results with our pilot sample of adults have revealed findings relevant to helping people with career issues, particularly career transition. One is to acknowledge people and their context (where and how they are situated.) This seems simple, an application of Carl Rogers' person-centred approach to helping (1951, 1961) with which all counsellors are familiar. However, it is more than just ascertaining what people's experience is. It is understanding what people are experiencing in the way that they themselves understand it. This means having some idea of how they structure meaning in their lives.

Establishing meaning-making structure

We have found it helpful to determine where the person is situated according to Kegan's constructive-developmental framework. The Subject-Object Interview is the most precise method, although time-consuming. However, it is possible to obtain a reasonable estimate of whether the person is solidly within a particular order (for example, embedded in relationships, or self-authoring) or in transition. We have found several areas fruitful to explore when establishing meaning-making structure. These are listed below, with examples of specific questions to ask.

Determine what would have changed the experience

- What would have changed the way you felt in that situation?
- Was there anything else you might have said or done?
- What would make that better for you?

Establish the extremes of the experience

- What was most significant to you about that?
- What made you the angriest about that situation?
- What's the most satisfying aspect of that experience?

Look at the other side of the experience

- What's the flip side of that for you?
- What would be the opposite of that?

Discover the "costs" of an event or action

- What would be the payoff for you?
- What might be the negative effects or consequences of that decision?
- What was most at stake for you in this situation?

Determine the important outcome of an event for the person

- How would you like (have liked) this to turn out?
- What's the most important thing that has come out of that experience?

Establish how the person knows or evaluates something (This helps sort out who is the author of the person's beliefs)

- What lets you know that...is so?
- How did you come to know that?
- What tells you that...is (not) a good thing to do?

Ask what the situation might tell about oneself

- What does this say to you about yourself?
- How does this relate to how you see yourself?

Voluntary versus involuntary transition

We have observed some structural differences between people experiencing voluntary and involuntary career transitions. Voluntary transition may often be in response to stimuli from within the persons themselves. They have already started to "grow" and have been questioning the way they have been looking at themselves, their relationships, their jobs, and so on. These people are ready, even eager to consider new ways of relating to work and the world at large. In contrast, involuntary transition, such as losing a job, is more likely to be the stimulus itself for people to look more closely at how they view their world. Along with the increased emotional content usually associated with losing a job, they tend to feel more "out of balance" with other elements in their lives. These people need more concrete support to help them consider new possibilities for seeing themselves in the world. This distinction is one worth investigating more closely.

Building bridges for development

Kegan's concept of "building bridges" (1994) is particularly useful for people in career transition. We must have equal respect for both ends of the bridge, creating firm foundations on both sides. We can anchor the bridge at one end by first acknowledging the way people make meaning in their worlds. The other end of the bridge must be seen to be achievable and desirable. We can accomplish this by helping the person

uncover goals, behaviours, and priorities consistent with a more evolved order of consciousness. We then help people to build their bridge from one side to the other, and cross with them when they are ready.

For example, if our clients' meaning-making is under the influence of the third order, there would be little benefit in insisting on self-direction or in trying to talk them out of considering others as much as they do. What is needed is to begin the discussion to include their experience, to invite them to consider the situation from their own perspective as well as that of significant others in their lives. This will allow us to understand how work might be meaningful according to the terms with which they are still identified. From this position we can then invite them to look toward a new perspective, one of increased self-direction and self-authorship (fourth order). This does not necessarily mean distancing oneself from others. Deciding "for myself" is not the same as deciding "by myself." We can invite people to consider being connected to others in a whole new way.

If meaning-making is judged to be at the fourth order already, we can stimulate growth by encouraging people to think about and even promote contradiction in their work life. In exploring possibilities for a new work life, counsellors can have people reflect on the beliefs or convictions underlying their ideas for improvement, as well as the competing (often hidden) beliefs that maintain the status quo or keep them "stuck." Individuals' increasing comfort in living with such tensions and contradictions indicates developmental growth toward the fifth order.

Conclusion

Present-day demands for self-direction in work and other areas of life are pervasive and challenging. The principles of constructive development can aid career counsellors and facilitators in helping people to meet these demands. Career transition, then, can become an opportunity for people to enhance their development, to achieve more flexible knowledge structures, and to transform their relationship to themselves and their environment.

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Laid off...then what? Effective strategies for career renewal

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This article is condensed from my master's thesis, Laid Off...Then What: A Study of Factors Predicting Reemployment for Displaced Workers (1995), which was written under the supervision of Janny Thompson in the Faculty of Education at Simon Fraser University.

Introduction

Involuntary job loss is an urgent problem, costly both financially and psychologically. It affects individuals, families, organizations, communities, and our national economy. Displaced workers often experience longer periods of unemployment than voluntary career-changers and are less likely to report being "better off" in a new job (Gottschalk and Maloney 1985). Career counsellors, educators, government program developers, union representatives, and human resource managers share the responsibility for facilitating expedient, successful career transitions.

A comprehensive literature review led to the identification of five key factors that could influence the reemployment of displaced workers: personality characteristics, work-role saliency, job search self-efficacy, coping resources, and contextual/demographic variables (such as age and tenure). A brief summary of the recent literature regarding each of these factors follows.

Personality contributes to needs (Costa and McCrae 1988), motivation (Kinicki 1989), social support (Latack and Dozier 1986), coping styles (Kinicki and Latack 1990), and self-esteem (Rynes and Lawler 1983), all of which have implications for displaced workers (Leana and Ivancevich 1987). In recent years there has been increasing support for a five-factor model of personality (McCrae and Costa 1991; Tett, Jackson, and Rothstein 1991).

Work-role saliency (or work ethic) can be defined as the relative importance of the role of work in a person's life. Kinicki (1989) found a significant positive association between saliency (assessed one month before layoff) and speed of reemployment.

Several studies have identified the importance of job search self-efficacy to the successful reemployment of displaced workers (Kanfer and Hulin 1985; Kinicki 1989; Rynes and Lawler 1983). Rife (1989) reported that older unemployed workers with low job search self-efficacy experienced longer periods of unemployment.

Warr's (1987) vitamin analogy emphasized the importance of coping resources to mental health during times of unemployment. Many other research findings have supported the hypothesis that these coping resources are important predictors of responses to unemployment (Caplan et al. 1989; Latack and Dozier 1986; Rife and Belcher 1993).

Other factors known to influence reemployment include personal demographic qualities (i.e., gender, age, and ethnicity), educational background, employment history (including tenure and recall expectations), economic disincentives (i.e., unemployment insurance and severance pay), and local labour-market conditions (Anderson 1992; Bowman, Couchman, and Cole 1994; Howland and Peterson 1988; Leana and Ivancevich 1987, Rynes and Lawler 1983).

The negative effect of unemployment on psychological well-being has been well documented. Because "it is involuntary termination, and not the experience of unemployment, that reduces the probability that a successful job transition will be made" (Gottschalk and Maloney 1985: 122); however, it seemed important to become better informed about characteristics common to displaced workers.

Method

Participants and procedure

Participants were recruited from among 182 employees of a food-processing plant that was closing. To maximize participation, I distributed questionnaire packages at meetings coordinated for submitting unemployment insurance (UI) applications the day before the closure. Of the 112 employees who attended the two group sessions, 83 (74%) consented to participate; 75 packages were completed to some degree.

Participants were almost equally divided in terms of gender, with 49% females and 51% males. On average, they were in their late 30s (M = 38.2, SD = 8.4). Most (n = 48, 64%) described their ethnic background as Canadian, 20% reported Indo-Canadian heritage, and 16% reported other ethnic roots that included First Nations, Vietnamese, Asian, British, and European.

Together, the participants represented 20 different types of jobs. Thirty-seven percent of the participants had been employed in skilled trades or management and professional positions, 24% were semiskilled or clerical workers, and 39% were labourers. The mean tenure was almost 11 years (M = 10.9, SD = 5.7).

A follow-up telephone interview, used primarily to determine employment status, was conducted two months after the closure. Two months after, according to Kaufman (1982), was a reasonable time for contact, as participants should be involved in an optimistic, concerted job search at that stage.

Measures

Questionnaire packages contained informed consent forms, the NEO-FFI (Costa and McCrae 1991), and a set of questions that included demographic items and assessments of (a) intentions regarding re-employment, (b) financial and social coping resources, (c) job search self-efficacy, and (d) work-role saliency.

The NEO-FFI is a brief measure of five major personality factors: neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Work-role saliency questions were modified from scales developed by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979). Questions measuring social support and financial resources were similarly modified from scales developed by Warr et al. (1979) and then combined to form a coping resources scale. Items comprising the job search self-efficacy scale were closely modelled after an inventory developed by Kanfer and Hulin (1985).

Follow-up was conducted during the third month following plant closure. Although I was unable to contact 11% (n = 8) of the 75 participants, for six of these someone who answered the telephone volunteered information about employment status.

Statistical analysis

Because the goal of this study was to identify factors useful in predicting employment status after a layoff, many predictors were under consideration. A two-group discriminant analysis seemed to be the most appropriate statistical treatment (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black 1992), so participants were assigned to either an Employed/Retraining or Unemployed Group. These groupings matched placement categories for most government-funded reemployment programs.

Results

Employment status at follow-up

At follow-up, 68% of the participants identified themselves as either reemployed, in a course, or registered for training. Fourteen percent identified themselves as unemployed but actively seeking work. The remaining 18% had removed themselves from the labour market for a variety of reasons, including pregnancy, health concerns, and early retirement.

Discriminant analysis

Fifty-seven participants were included in the analysis (missing data excluded the other 18). Seventy percent of the participants (n = 40) comprised the Employed/Retraining Group; the others (n = 17) comprised the Unemployed Group.

Ten predictor variables were entered into the discriminant analysis: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness (NEO factors); work-role saliency, job search self-efficacy, coping resources, tenure, education, and ethnicity. The analysis produced a significant canonical discriminant function: X^2 (10, N = 57) = 20.79, p < .05. This function had a canonical correlation of .58, which, when squared, permits the conclusion that 34% of the variance in employment status was explained by the function.

The significant predictors (with pooled within-groups correlations in parentheses) were: work-role saliency (-.32), openness (.31), conscientiousness (.27), extraversion (.26), tenure (.25), and ethnicity (.23). The classification results indicated that 80.7% of the grouped cases were correctly classified.

For three of the personality variables, results were in direct contrast to the hypotheses. Rather than predicting reemployment or retraining, openness, conscientiousness, and extraversion all predicted unemployment. Higher neuroticism and lower education did not predict unemployment, nor did higher job-search self-efficacy and coping resources predict reemployment. As hypothesized, however, low work-role saliency, ethnic minority status, and longer tenure all contributed significantly to prediction of unemployment but, due to close group means and high standard deviations, these results must be interpreted cautiously.

Discussion

Predicting employment outcome

Displaced workers who remained unemployed two months after the closure reported longer tenure and less commitment to the work-role, and were more likely to belong to an ethnic minority group. The profile to this point is consistent with research previously cited. Those who remained unemployed, however, were also more conscientious, open, and extraverted than those who became reemployed or entered retraining

Personality

Ramanaiah and Deniston (1993) reported that a combination of high conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness is characteristic of assertiveness. In this study, there were significant ($p < .01$) correlations between these three variables. Perhaps assertive displaced workers are less inclined to rush into jobs or training programs that are not ideal, and more likely to exercise their "rights" to collect UI. Neuroticism was not significantly correlated with the discriminant function. Perhaps, because personality traits can be masked by short-term mental states (Fergusson, Horwood, and Lawton 1989), the NEO-FFI results were contaminated by the emotional state common to most of the displaced workers the day before plant closure.

Work-role saliency

Low work-role saliency predicted unemployment, as hypothesized, supporting the results from Kinicki's (1989) study of displaced manufacturing workers (primarily a sample of older men). The present study was more gender-balanced and included workers who were, on average, 13 years younger—extending the generalizability of Kinicki's research.

Job search self-efficacy

It is puzzling that job search self-efficacy was the variable least correlated with the discriminant function in this study, given that Kanfer and Hulin (1985) reported that it accounted for 74% of the total variance in reemployment success. Differences between the two studies may explain this contradiction.

Kanfer and Hulin's sample consisted of younger participants ($M = 25$) whose average tenure was only two months. In the current study, most participants had worked at one job for the past 11 years, offering limited opportunity to practise or develop job search skills, or to explore the current labour market. Their high self-efficacy, then, may have been based on traditional job search methods—less effective for finding jobs today.

Kanfer and Hulin's participants also received an overview of local employment possibilities. Perhaps those with higher job search self-efficacy followed up more effectively on the leads they received, resulting in quicker reemployment. Finally, Kanfer and Hulin found a negative correlation between self-efficacy and depression, with depressed subjects more likely to remain unemployed. In the present study, there was a negative correlation between neuroticism and job search self-efficacy. Perhaps, because my participants were older with longer tenure, they experienced more post-layoff depression, which moderated the job search self-efficacy they had identified prior to the closure.

Coping resources

It was surprising that coping resources were not a significant predictor, given that much of the literature reviewed emphasized the importance of social support and financial resources during periods of unemployment. Warr (1987) hypothesized, however, that some "vitamins" (including valued social position and availability of money) have a constant effect on psychological well-being once a minimum level is achieved. Perhaps, then, because all of the workers displaced in the present study received a severance package and were eligible to collect UI, the threshold for financial resources had been achieved. Beyond that threshold, as Anderson (1992) suggests, receiving UI and expecting union recall may act as economic disincentives to return to work.

Because the social support measure used in the present study did not clarify whether the available support encouraged reemployment goals, Ratcliff and Bogdan's (1988) contention that some social support may be hostile or indifferent to employment may offer another explanation for the poor performance of coping resources as a predictor. The current study may also have differentiated between the structured group support typically provided within a pre-employment program, and the general social support that displaced workers receive from friends and family.

Contextual-demographic factors

Although tenure and ethnicity were useful in improving prediction in the hypothesized direction, education was not a significant predictor. The findings of Bowman and her colleagues (1994), that workers with more tenure are likely to remain unemployed or withdraw from the workforce, appear to be supported here. Ethnic minority status was also correlated with extended unemployment, replicating previous research. However, because this sample was Canadian, a substantially different combination of ethnic minorities (i.e., Indo-Canadian, Asian, First Nations, Vietnamese, and British/European) are represented than in the previous American studies (i.e., black and Hispanic).

Perhaps because of a restricted range of educational levels with these participants (75% completed Grades 10–12), education did not significantly discriminate between groups in this study. Another explanation is that ethnicity confounded the education variable: 36% of the participants identifed their background as non-Canadian. Maybe their education, due to language difficulties or foreign credentials, did not predict reemployment as it might for nonimmigrant workers.

Implications

Although this study clearly needs to be replicated with other groups of displaced workers, it suggests that assessments and data collection prior to layoff could predict the likelihood of reemployment and guide outplacement counsellors and program managers in providing suitable interventions. Because members of ethnic minorities, and workers with longer tenure, are at risk of prolonged unemployment, early interventions targeting these subgroups should be encouraged. Finding that tenure was a significant predictor of extended unemployment is consistent with Bowman et al.'s (1994) observation that older workers with longer tenure have neglected ongoing education and are not up-to-date with technology or job search skills. Career counsellors and employment agencies can help prevent this problem by actively encouraging employers to provide and/or financially support career management and "lifelong learning" for existing employees that would better prepare them to cope with future job transitions.

Social support specifically directed toward employment goals can be an important determinant of reemployment. Anderson (1992) suggests that counselling that entails setting realistic job goals, developing specific action plans, and providing encouragement, might be the most cost-effective method to encourage quick reemployment for displaced workers, especially those receiving UI and initially expecting recall.

As Vinokur and his colleagues (1991) reported in their self-efficacy study, and as Warr (1987) described regarding his vitamin model, there appears to be a ceiling effect for some personality and environmental characteristics. Excellent interventions, therefore, might have minimal impact on the reemployment of displaced workers who come into programs with sufficient coping resources and job search self-efficacy. It is important, both for expediting reemployment and efficiently making use of available funding and resources, to select appropriate participants who can benefit from specific programs offered. To conserve program resources and counselling interventions for participants motivated to return to work, it might be helpful to identify those displaced workers with lower work-role saliency and help them to develop satisfying activities in other life roles to reduce the psychological distress of transition.

Training programs and support services need to be flexible, supportive, nonthreatening, and immediately accessible to displaced workers if they are to effectively facilitate reemployment. Ideally, counsellors could, following a needs assessment, assign displaced workers to appropriate modules of programs—rather than "all-or-nothing" services that are usually provided. With our current national focus on decreasing the government deficit, trimming budgets, and providing cost-effective

services, research that leads to provision of programs and services that minimize cost per participant, and expedite the reemployment of displaced workers, should be well received.

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The Workability Handbook

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The Workability Handbook

For a host of reasons that have been elaborated upon by authors such as Nuala Beck, Warren Bennis, William Bridges, Peter Drucker, and Charles Handy, the competitive, rapidly changing work environment requires workers and the work they do to be:

- able to change quickly (to respond to new needs)
- focused on quality (to retain customers)
- focused on service (to retain customers)
- creative (to find better solutions to problems or to better meet customer needs)
- cost-effective (to be competitive by lowering costs for the customer)
- quick (to get the job done before customer needs change)
- self-initiated (to respond to the customer or a problem immediately)

It is difficult to create these abilities within an organization full of traditional jobs. It is much easier to produce these characteristics when:

- workers are paid only when their services are needed
- workers and the work they do can be switched and/or changed quickly
- workers work on specific projects with specific goals and due dates
- workers communicate with each other in teams rather than upward through a series of supervisors and managers
- workers are given responsibility to get the job done

Organizations are therefore moving to alternate ways of getting work done. Although jobs will almost certainly always be with us, work is now being packaged in a variety of different ways. Career development practitioners and their clients, however, typically think in terms of jobs, job search, employment, and employability rather than work roles, work search, work, and workability.

In order to produce a tool for identifying skills and skill gaps and encourage the shift in mindset from "jobs" to "work," Alberta Advanced Education and Career Development commissioned the Life-Role Development Group to develop the Workability Handbook. The Workability Handbook is a self-assessment/portfolio tool that enables young people and social assistance recipients to record and provide evidence of their workability skills, attitudes, and knowledge. The Workability Handbook moves clients beyond thinking only about their employability skills to seeing themselves in terms of a broader set of workability capacities. Workability skills, knowledge, and attitudes include all employability skills (e.g., those listed by the Conference Board of Canada and others), but they include abilities required within a variety of work alternatives. Some of the dominant work alternatives are listed and described below.

The work alternatives

There is little new about the work alternatives described here except that they are becoming increasingly common and increasingly viable options for our clients. As you read the descriptions, notice that they are described in order of the amount of risk involved in taking them on.

Full-time employment

Full-time employment is defined as work for a single employer done to a job description for more than 30 hours a week. Usually, full-time employment comes with an expectation of permanence. In Canada, employers are required to make Canada Pension Plan and Employment Insurance contributions for full-time employees. Full-time employment gives people a feeling of security and predictability.

Part-time employment

Part-time work involves working less than 30 hours per week within a specific job for a single employer. As with full-time employment, part-time employment often carries with it the assumption of permanence or durability. People who want part-time positions usually have other nonwork interests (e.g., children, hobbies, school) that are important to them.

Multi-tracking

Multi-tracking occurs when an individual holds more than one job at one time. These jobs can be full-time and/or part-time. A full-time factory worker who "moonlights" by working some evening shifts at a restaurant is a multi-tracker. So it is a person who holds a part-time position at a clothing store and a part-time position at a gas station. Multi-tracking allows people to pursue a variety of interests.

Job sharing

Individuals are job sharing when two or more of them work within a single job description. Usually, a full-time position is shared by two or more people; when one goes home, the other takes over. Job sharing is attractive to those who want some predictability but who do not want to work full-time.

Work sharing

Work sharing is like job sharing with the exception that a function rather than position is shared. Two or more people agree to get certain tasks done for an employer in a work sharing arrangement. For example, an employer may require an after-sales service system to make sure customers are happy with the products they have purchased. The employer could create positions to do this (e.g., service manager, service specialist, quality inspector), or the employer could have a team of

people responsible for making sure that after-sales service takes place. The latter option involves work sharing. Work sharing is chosen by those who want diversity and flexibility in their work.

Talent pooling

Individuals within a talent pool commit to each other to find work for members of the pool. Typically, informal arrangements among a group of people with common interests result in a talent pool. A group of people get together and agree to be each other's marketer and referral source. For example, consider six people who have lost their oil patch work. Each person has different talents. These six people could form a talent pool in which all of them would seek work for their specific talents and for the talents of others in the pool. People choose talent pools in order to broaden their ability to find meaningful work. Also, talent pools allow individuals to say yes to work for which they do not have the competence, but for which one of the members of the pool does.

Agent

Agents are well known in the world of movie stars and athletes. They will become better known in other areas of work in the near future. Agents (sometimes called brokers) represent other people's talents or products. They earn their income by taking a fee for linking people with talent to work that needs to be done. People choose to be agents when they enjoy selling and value the use of people's talent.

Contracting

Contract employees are those who work for a preset time period. Usually working full-time, these employees move from one contract to the next. The major challenge they face is to avoid having long gaps between contracts. Contracting usually comes with no benefits (e.g., dental, employment insurance), so contractors have to look after their own benefits. Contracting is an option for individuals who have confidence in their abilities and like a variety of work for different organizations in different settings.

Consulting

Consultants work on a number of projects simultaneously. They are like a multi-tracking contractor. Consultants usually work on a number of time-specific and outcome-specific projects, often for a number of different clients, at the same time. For example, a researcher who is running a training session for one client, writing a report for another client, and analysing data for another is consulting. Consulting allows for a great deal of variety in one's work life.

Self-employment

People who develop, market, and deliver a service or product are self-employed, if they do not employ others (when they also employ others,

they come entrepreneurs). Many of the increasing numbers of home-based businesses are examples of self-employment. The potter who produces and sells work from his or her home is self-employed. Self-employment is a favoured option for people who want to be independent and to be their own boss.

Entrepreneurship

An entrepreneur is a self-employed individual who also employs others. The potter whose operation becomes so large that additional people are needed becomes an entrepreneur as soon as someone else is hired to help out. A person who buys a franchise operation is also an entrepreneur. Entrepreneurship is the most risky work alternative because commitments are made to others as well as to oneself. Also, entrepreneurs often invest significant amounts of money to get their operations started. However, entrepreneurs probably have the greatest potential to make money and to control their own destinies.

Workability and employability

Manoeuvring within and between the various work alternatives requires traditional employability skills, some new skills, and some modified employability skills. Some of the key additions to employability skills that comprise workability skills include:

- risk-taking (to accommodate both the needs of highly competitive work and the risks inherent in the work alternatives)
- negotiation skills (to manage discussions about responsibilities, roles, and rewards in a work world in which less and less of this information is carved in stone)
- information skills (essential to finding and creating opportunities in a less structured work dynamic)
- value management (making decisions about adding value to one's life and one's work; critical in a world in which the boss no longer makes these decisions on behalf of employees)
- knowledge of organizational operations (to position oneself in a way that adds value to the organization)
- building relationships (to find work in a rapidly changing environment, to gain support in a variety of ways, and to effectively work within a variety of project teams)
- collaboration skills (for teamwork, client interaction, and supplier interaction)

Modifications to traditional employability skills include changing:

- job-specific skills to work-specific skills
- preparing job search information to understanding and preparing marketing documentation
- commitment to employer to commitment to an employer/project

- understanding the job to understanding the work role
- job interview skills to work interview skills

The preceding lists illustrate that the Workability Handbook does not revolutionize the idea of employability. Rather, the Workability Handbook enables individuals to see that skills beyond traditional employability skills may be worth acquiring and that looking for work is more useful than just looking for a job.

Le mentorat de personnes retraitées pour l'exploration professionnelle au secondaire

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La présente étude s'inscrit dans le cadre plus global des travaux effectués au Centre de recherche sur l'éducation et le travail (CRET) de l'Université de Sherbrooke; elle a été réalisée grâce à l'appui financier du Conseil de recherches en sciences humaines du Canada (CRSH).

Introduction

Il semble exister certaines lacunes concernant l'orientation des élèves dans les écoles secondaires du Québec qui sont liées aux pratiques d'exploration professionnelle. Plusieurs jeunes ont besoin d'être guidés et motivés davantage face à leur carrière; ils souhaitent connaître les réalités du monde du travail d'une façon plus concrète et plus réaliste afin de mieux se découvrir et se fixer des buts professionnels. Comme il n'est pas toujours facile pour l'école d'entretenir des relations régulières avec des représentants des milieux de travail (employeurs ou travailleurs), nous avons considéré une solution impliquant les personnes nouvellement ou prochainement retraitées comme mentors afin d'aider ces élèves dans leur orientation professionnelle.

Après avoir justifié certains besoins d'éducation à la carrière des adolescents et le mentorat comme solution possible, nous présenterons brièvement le questionnaire que nous avons développé et l'échantillon d'élèves et d'adultes avec lesquels il a été utilisé. Ensuite, nous exposerons quelques résultats obtenus qui seront brièvement interprétés en vue de dégager certaines applications pour la pratique en orientation professionnelle dans les écoles secondaires.

Besoins d'éducation à la carrière des élèves du secondaire

Il n'est point besoin de revenir longuement sur les théories bien connues du développement de carrière qui ont insisté sur l'importance de l'exploration professionnelle, de la mise à l'essai du concept de soi dans une variété d'activités en vue d'un meilleur choix professionnel. Depuis quelques années déjà (Conseil supérieur de l'éducation du Québec 1986), les jeunes demandent des contacts plus fréquents avec des travailleurs afin de connaître les réalités du marché du travail. L'étude de Dupont et Gingras (1990) démontrait aussi que les élèves du secondaire considèrent plus utiles les activités d'orientation qui impliquent des observations de personnes au travail ou des expériences de travail.

Selon le récent compte rendu des États généraux sur l'éducation (1996), la situation ne s'est guère améliorée puisqu'on réclame entre autres que les services d'orientation informent davantage les élèves et les parents sur le marché du travail et qu'ils permettent aux jeunes d'élargir leur univers d'exploration. Une étude de la Corporation professionnelle des conseillers et conseillères d'orientation du Québec sur la réussite éducative et l'orientation des élèves (1993) dévoilait que 70 % à 75 % des élèves du 5e secondaire affirmaient n'avoir aucune idée de leur

orientation. Cette donnée alarmante justifie à elle seule la nécessité pour l'école d'établir davantage de liens avec le monde du travail. Une autre importante étude intitulée «Écoles et entreprises : un nouveau partenariat» (OCDE 1992) a par ailleurs démontré la nécessité d'un rapprochement entre les écoles et les entreprises non seulement pour améliorer l'orientation des jeunes mais pour les motiver davantage et leur donner une meilleure formation générale.

Sans la collaboration de la communauté, le système d'éducation ne peut répondre aux besoins d'éducation, d'orientation et de motivation des jeunes au regard de leur carrière. De leur côté, les entreprises ou les industries axées sur la productivité n'ont que très peu de temps à consacrer à l'éducation à la carrière des élèves. Bien qu'elles démontrent un certain intérêt à collaborer, il persiste une certaine hésitation; c'est ce qui ressort de la recherche de Dupont et Mialaret (1990) sur les rôles que peut jouer l'entreprise dans le processus éducatif.

Considérant le fait que les jeunes ont un besoin de contacts réguliers avec les travailleurs pour accentuer leur motivation à explorer ou à apprendre et que les entreprises, prudentes au niveau de leur intention de collaborer, n'ont que très peu de temps à consacrer au partenariat, pourquoi ne pourrait-on pas penser au mentorat avec des personnes nouvellement ou prochainement retraitées comme une ressource éducative utile pour l'orientation professionnelle des élèves du secondaire?

Le mentorat, une pratique éducative en orientation

De plus en plus, aux États-Unis et au Canada anglais, des professionnels des domaines de l'éducation et des services sociaux choisissent le mentorat pour aider les jeunes à faire des choix appropriés et à devenir responsables. Houde (1995) réserve le terme «mentorat» pour désigner une relation de réalité et de réciprocité. Elle voit le mentor comme une figure de transition impliquant une relation passagère. Elle explique la popularité du mentorat par le besoin des jeunes «de redonner aux environnements éducatifs leur sens et leur richesse» (p. 14). La définition de Gladstone (1987, dans Breton 1992) nous semble bien reliée au développement de carrière d'un individu : «un mentor est quelqu'un qui aide une autre personne à devenir ce que cette personne aspire à être, un conseiller fiable ou encore une personne plus expérimentée qui prend un intérêt particulier au développement d'une autre personne» (p. 2).

Pour arriver à une relation significative, le mentor doit jouer les rôles de modèle, de conseiller, d'enseignant, de support et de promoteur social. Dans son rôle de modèle, il doit transmettre ses connaissances

professionnelles en respectant la personnalité de l'apprenant et évaluer ses progrès; il voit à inculquer au jeune des habitudes de travail et des attitudes appropriées et à le motiver. Son rôle de conseiller l'amène à écouter l'élève, à clarifier des informations tout en le conseillant, à le guider en lui transmettant les normes, valeurs et tabous de la culture organisationnelle; il lui montre aussi comment appliquer dans sa vie ce qu'il apprend à l'école et lui explique l'avantage de prendre des décisions après mûre réflexion.

En tant qu'enseignant, le mentor informe l'élève, lui démontre des tâches, lui donne de nouvelles connaissances, le questionne. Dans son rôle de support, il encourage le jeune, lui apporte un support moral dans un climat de confiance et d'amitié; il doit également le sécuriser en confirmant son évolution et faire en sorte qu'il développe sa confiance en lui. Le mentor, promoteur social, défend les intérêts de l'élève, l'aide à mieux s'épanouir en société, l'assiste dans sa vie scolaire, sociale et professionnelle; il lui présente des défis, lui donne l'occasion de faire ses preuves. Tous ces rôles du mentor visent le développement de l'identité personnelle et professionnelle. Ils permettent au jeune de construire le sentiment de sa propre valeur, de ses compétences et l'aident à avancer dans son projet scolaire ou professionnel.

Selon Ianni (1990), les changements vécus par les adolescents à travers la vie sociale, scolaire et familiale les perturbent au point de vue de leur identité et de leur estime de soi. Ils veulent atteindre une certaine autonomie et prendre des décisions sans l'influence familiale. Ils essaient de se connaître, de se découvrir une personnalité, des intérêts et des buts. Ce contexte de confusion, d'ambivalence et d'insécurité rend l'exploration difficile pour faire des choix de carrière réalistes. Pour une exploration positive, l'auteur présume que les élèves du secondaire ont besoin de la participation d'un adulte dans un contexte hors familial afin d'être guidés adéquatement. Son étude démontre que l'échange intime avec un adulte peut les aider à se faire confiance, à se connaître et à trouver leur identité de manière saine, sans influence négative. Cet adulte compréhensif, qui doit représenter un modèle positif dans un environnement de travail, les aiderait à identifier un but de carrière impliquant un projet motivant à l'image de leur personnalité.

Devenir mentor représente un projet intéressant pour les personnes qui commencent leur retraite car ces dernières ont besoin de se rendre utiles socialement. Selon Riverin-Simard (1986), à cette dernière étape de vie au travail, il y a une substitution de la notion de rendement par celle d'utilité personnelle et sociale. Pour De Ravinel (1991), «les exemples sont nombreux de ce gaspillage de ressources, où nous nous privons d'une richesse extraordinaire de savoir, d'expérience et de sagesse» (p. 52).

Quant à Baran (1992), il nous fait réfléchir sur le rôle éducatif efficace et important que peut jouer un retraité s'il a la volonté de s'engager envers une personne plus jeune dans le but d'améliorer son savoir. Cette qualité première du mentor est susceptible d'être présente chez les personnes en fin de carrière qui sont, selon Erickson (1963), au stade de la générativité. Ce théoricien du développement humain définit la générativité par l'intérêt de l'adulte pour l'éducation des générations futures et son grand besoin de laisser sa trace. Par leur disponibilité, leur désir de se rendre utile, leur maturité et leur générativité, ces personnes d'expérience qui sont nouvellement ou prochainement retraitées, peuvent entretenir des relations de mentorat significatives afin de répondre aux besoins des élèves concernant leur développement de carrière.

Nous nous sommes donc proposé de voir comment des jeunes de 14 et 15 ans perçoivent le mentorat avec une personne en fin de carrière comme aide dans leur orientation professionnelle et comment de tels mentors potentiels perçoivent leur rôle auprès de ces jeunes, pour ensuite comparer leurs perceptions respectives concernant les types d'aide et d'activités éducatives qui pourraient être organisés dans les écoles secondaires.

Cueillette de données

À l'intention des deux groupes d'individus concernés par cette étude, deux questionnaires ont été construits à partir des concepts de développement de carrière et d'éducation à la carrière. Dans les instruments, dont les items sont presque identiques en vue de la comparaison des perceptions, le mentorat a été présenté en introduction comme un moyen d'aider le jeune dans son orientation professionnelle. Le mentor a été défini comme une personne (femme ou homme) à laquelle un jeune est jumelé, âgée de 50 à 65 ans environ, qui est à la retraite depuis peu ou s'y prépare, et qui a exercé une profession intéressant le jeune.

Les questionnaires dont le contenu et les résultats sont présentés aux pages 141 et 142 comportaient deux parties (A et B) composées respectivement de neuf (9) items. Pour chaque question, les répondants jeunes et adultes devaient donner leur opinion en choisissant une seule réponse parmi les suivantes : pas du tout (1), un peu (2), moyennement (3) et beaucoup (4). Une question ouverte permettait aux répondants de proposer d'autres types d'aide ou d'activités.

Les questionnaires ont été administrés à 279 élèves (136 garçons et 143 filles) de 3e secondaire dans trois écoles secondaires de Sherbrooke, et à 115 adultes (51 hommes et 64 femmes) âgés de 50 à 67 ans, dont

86 se préparaient à leur retraite prochaine et 29 étaient retraités depuis moins de deux ans.

Résultats

Comme on peut l'observer dans les tableaux présentés aux pages 141 et 142, à partir de la fréquence des réponses regroupées selon les choix «pas du tout», «un peu» (1 + 2) et «moyennement», «beaucoup» (3 + 4), nous avons calculé les pourcentages obtenus à chaque question ainsi que le total de chacune des parties A et B des questionnaires s'adressant aux élèves (tableau 1) et aux mentors potentiels (tableau 2).

Si on considère d'abord l'opinion des élèves concernant les types d'aide qu'une personne mentor pourrait leur apporter dans leur orientation professionnelle, on constate qu'une proportion importante d'entre eux croient qu'elle pourrait les aider moyennement et beaucoup à bien connaître la profession qui les intéresse (81 %), à prendre de meilleures décisions concernant leurs choix professionnels (78,8 %), à mieux comprendre comment est organisé un milieu de travail (78,2 %), à mieux saisir ce que les employeurs exigent des travailleurs (72,4 %) et à prendre davantage conscience des bonnes habitudes requises en emploi (71,0 %).

Dans des proportions un peu moins grandes mais encore assez élevées, certains élèves pensent qu'un mentor pourrait les aider à découvrir davantage leurs intérêts professionnels (67,6 %) et à mieux comprendre l'utilité des matières scolaires pour leur avenir professionnel (63,7 %). Par contre, seulement 50 % des jeunes trouvent qu'un mentor pourrait leur apporter de l'aide pour connaître leurs capacités et leurs traits de personnalité, et 43 % perçoivent que cette personne peut les aider à mieux connaître les raisons pour lesquelles on travaille.

Ces résultats obtenus à la partie A du questionnaire aux élèves nous permettent de confirmer qu'ils ont besoin et souhaitent plus d'informations sur les réalités du monde du travail et qu'ils sont confiants que des mentors pourraient les aider à mieux connaître la profession qui les intéresse, l'organisation et les exigences des milieux de travail, à découvrir leurs intérêts professionnels et à prendre des décisions professionnelles.

Si une proportion totale de 67,3 % des jeunes croit qu'un mentor pourrait les aider dans leur orientation professionnelle, les personnes prochainement ou nouvellement retraitées qui ont répondu au questionnaire croient dans une proportion encore plus élevée de 83,7 % qu'elles

seraient en mesure d'aider les élèves dans leur orientation professionnelle.

Si l'on tient compte des différences les plus importantes entre les opinions (voir partie A, tableau 2), on note qu'une proportion très grande de mentors potentiels croient qu'ils peuvent aider un élève à prendre davantage conscience des bonnes habitudes requises en emploi (94,7 %), à mieux connaître les raisons pour lesquelles on travaille (88,8 %), à mieux comprendre les exigences des travailleurs (87,7 %) et comment un milieu de travail est organisé (87,5 %). Dans des proportions respectives de 84,1 % et 83,4 %, les mentors pensent qu'ils peuvent aider les jeunes à découvrir leurs intérêts professionnels et à mieux comprendre l'utilité des matières scolaires pour leur avenir. Si ces mentors potentiels semblent convaincus qu'ils peuvent aider utilement les élèves à explorer le monde du travail et ses exigences, les proportions de réponses «moyennement» et «beaucoup» diminuent (dans les 70 %) quand il s'agit d'aider plus directement l'élève dans son choix professionnel, c'est-à-dire l'aider à connaître ses capacités, sa profession préférée et à prendre des décisions.

Afin de savoir quelles activités éducatives de relations élèves-mentors il serait préférable d'organiser dans une école secondaire, nous analysons les réponses fournies à la partie B des deux questionnaires. À première vue, il est facile de remarquer que les élèves indiquent dans une proportion totale de 67,5 % qu'ils s'intéresseraient «moyennement» et «beaucoup» aux neuf activités éducatives proposées, tandis que chez les mentors potentiels, le taux moyen chute à 49,9 %. Chez les jeunes, leur intérêt pour les activités proposées s'exprime dans l'ordre suivant : faire un stage d'observation (86,7 %), visiter le milieu de travail du mentor (76 %), réaliser des tâches précises (75,1 %), regarder exercer ses fonctions (73,1 %), participer à l'organisation d'une journée carrière (72,1 %). Un taux plus bas apparaît pour les activités dans le milieu scolaire dont les pourcentages varient entre 48,8 % et 61,8 %.

Quant aux personnes en fin de carrière, elles semblent beaucoup moins intéressées à aider à la réalisation de travaux scolaires (34,8 %), à participer à des activités d'enseignement en classe (39,1 %), à parler en classe de leur profession (44,7 %), à participer à l'organisation d'une journée carrière (47,3 %) et à guider un élève en stage dans un milieu de travail (47,3 %). Leur intérêt est un peu plus élevé, bien qu'un peu décevant, pour démontrer quelles sont les fonctions exercées dans leur milieu de travail (64,6 %), pour faire visiter leur lieu de travail(59,8 %), aider l'élève à réaliser des tâches précises (56,7 %) ou avoir des rencontres individuelles avec l'élève (54,4 %). Cette hésitation peut s'expliquer par une réticence ou une démotivation de la part des

répondants à l'idée de retourner dans leur ancien milieu de travail. Peut-être aussi craignent-ils une trop grande sollicitation ou un manque d'habiletés pour assister les élèves dans leur orientation professionnelle. Une plus grande information au niveau de l'implication et des rôles du mentor aurait sans doute été nécessaire. Il appert que les élèves tout comme les adultes en fin de carrière privilégient les activités relatives à la connaissance concrète du monde du travail. Il serait intéressant de développer des initiatives en fonction d'abord de ces préférences.

Conclusion

Après avoir cerné les besoins des jeunes en matière d'éducation à la carrière, nous avons envisagé le mentorat avec des personnes nouvellement et prochainement retraitées pour aider les élèves dans leur orientation professionnelle. Afin de connaître les opinions de ces jeunes et adultes, nous avons construit les questionnaires portant sur les types d'aide et d'activités éducatives qui pourraient être mis en place dans les écoles secondaires.

Les résultats présentés précédemment nous amènent à penser qu'il serait pertinent d'élaborer et d'appliquer un programme de mentorat dont le but premier serait la connaissance des réalités de l'emploi, de la profession et du milieu de travail qui attirent les élèves, puisque les deux générations semblent intéressées à entretenir une relation enrichissante à cet effet. Nous pouvons espérer que les écoles, les conseillers d'orientation et les enseignants encourageront l'implication de cette pratique éducative qui s'avère un outil avantageux pour répondre aux besoins d'orientation des jeunes du secondaire et d'implication sociale des aînés concernés.

Tableau 1 Le mentorat en orientation professionnelle
Réponses (%) des élèves (N=279)

(1) Pas du tout (2) Un peu (3) Moyennement (4) Beaucoup

A) Si tu devais être jumelé à un mentor pour ton orientation professionnelle, dans quelle mesure crois-tu que cette personne pourrait t'aider...	**1 + 2**	**3 + 4**
1. à mieux comprendre comment est organisé un milieu de travail?	**21,9**	**78,2**
2. à mieux saisir ce que les employeurs exigent des travailleurs?	**27,6**	**72,4**
3. à prendre davantage conscience des bonnes habitudes requises en emploi (ex. : la ponctualité, le travail bien fait, l'efficacité)?	**29,0**	**71,0**
4. à mieux comprendre l'utilité des matières scolaires pour ton avenir professionnel?	**36,4**	**63,7**
5. à mieux connaître les raisons pour lesquelles on travaille?	**57,0**	**43,0**
6. à découvrir davantage tes intérêts professionnels?	**32,3**	**67,6**
7. à mieux connaître tes capacités et tes traits de personnalité?	**50,0**	**50,0**
8. à bien connaître la profession qui t'intéresse?	**19,0**	**81,0**
9. à prendre de meilleures décisions concernant tes choix professionnels?	**21,1**	**78,8**
Total	**32,7**	**67,3**

B) Si tu devais être jumelé à un mentor en vue de recevoir de l'aide pour ton orientation professionnelle, diverses activités éducatives pourraient être organisées. Jusqu'à quel point t'intéresserait chacune des activités suivantes?	**1 + 2**	**3 + 4**
1. Visiter le milieu de travail du mentor.	**24,0**	**76,0**
2. Réaliser des tâches précises dans le milieu de travail du mentor.	**24,9**	**75,1**
3. Faire des rencontres individuelles avec le mentor.	**46,8**	**53,3**
4. Écouter les mentors parler en classe de leur profession.	**38,1**	**61,8**
5. Recevoir l'enseignement des mentors lorsqu'ils participent à des activités en classe avec les élèves.	**39,5**	**60,5**
6. Participer avec les mentors à l'organisation d'une journée carrière (information ou exposition concernant différentes professions).	**27,9**	**72,1**
7. Faire un stage d'observation d'une journée ou deux dans le milieu de travail du mentor.	**13,3**	**86,7**
8. Regarder le mentor exercer ses fonctions dans un milieu de travail.	**26,9**	**73,1**
9. Réaliser tes travaux scolaires avec le mentor.	**51,2**	**48,8**
Total	**32,5**	**67,5**

Nom (facultatif) : _____ Sexe : M ☐ F ☐

Date de naissance : _____ École : _____

Tableau 2 Le mentorat en orientation professionnelle
Réponses (%) des mentors potentiels (N=115)

(1) Pas du tout (2) Un peu (3) Moyennement (4) Beaucoup

A) Dans quelle mesure croyez-vous qu'un mentor peut aider un élève...	**1 + 2**	**3 + 4**
1. à mieux comprendre comment est organisé un milieu de travail?	**12,5**	**87,5**
2. à mieux saisir ce que les employeurs exigent des travailleurs?	**12,3**	**87,7**
3. à prendre davantage conscience des bonnes habitudes requises en emploi (ex. : la ponctualité, le travail bien fait, l'efficacité)?	**5,3**	**94,7**
4. à mieux comprendre l'utilité des matières scolaires pour son avenir professionnel?	**16,7**	**83,4**
5. à mieux connaître les raisons pour lesquelles on travaille?	**11,6**	**88,4**
6. à découvrir davantage ses intérêts professionnels?	**15,9**	**84,1**
7. à mieux connaître ses capacités et ses traits de personnalité?	**24,5**	**74,4**
8. à bien connaître la profession qui l'intéresse?	**21,1**	**78,9**
9. à prendre de meilleures décisions concernant ses choix professionnels?	**26,5**	**73,5**
Total	**16,3**	**83,7**

B) Si vous étiez jumelé à un élève dans le but de l'aider dans son orientation professionnelle, diverses activités éducatives pourraient être organisées. Jusqu'à quel point seriez-vous intéressé...	**1 + 2**	**3 + 4**
1. à faire visiter votre milieu de travail à l'élève?	**40,2**	**59,8**
2. à aider l'élève à réaliser des tâches précises dans votre milieu de travail?	**43,2**	**56,7**
3. à faire des rencontres individuelles avec l'élève?	**45,6**	**54,4**
4. à parler en classe de votre profession?	**55,4**	**44,7**
5. à participer à des activités d'enseignement en classe avec les élèves?	**60,9**	**39,1**
6. à participer à l'organisation d'une journée carrière (journée d'information ou exposition concernant les différentes professions) avec les élèves?	**52,7**	**47,3**
7. à guider l'élève pour un stage d'observation d'une journée ou deux dans votre milieu de travail?	**52,7**	**47,3**
8. à démontrer à l'élève quelles sont les fonctions exercées dans votre milieu de travail?	**35,4**	**64,6**
9. à aider l'élève dans la réalisation de ses travaux scolaires?	**65,2**	**34,8**
Total	**50,1**	**49,9**

Nom (facultatif) : _____ Sexe : M ☐ F ☐ Âge : _____

Dernier emploi : _____ Date de votre retraite : _____

Dernier employeur : _____

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Les pratiques d'employabilité : entre le prescrit et le réel

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Introduction

La mondialisation des marchés, l'avènement des technologies et la prédominance de la logique de l'accroissement effréné des profits comptent parmi les conditions structurelles qui compromettent profondément les possibilités d'accès au marché du travail ainsi que les chances de maintien en emploi. Elles poussent une portion inquiétante de la population dans un processus d'exclusion socioprofessionnelle. Les programmes de groupe visant le développement de l'employabilité comptent parmi les solutions expérimentées pour parer au problème.

Après un rappel des avantages, mais aussi des limites de ces programmes d'employabilité, tels qu'ils sont officiellement décrits, le présent article affirme l'importance de s'intéresser aux points de vue des intervenants qui oeuvrent dans ce domaine et aux stratégies concrètes qu'ils développent pour donner un sens à leur travail et pour maintenir leur équilibre face aux impasses dans lesquelles ils se trouvent souvent. Nous présentons l'hypothèse de l'existence d'écarts significatifs entre les programmes officiels (le prescrit), les modèles d'action épousés par les intervenants (ce qu'ils disent qu'ils font) et leurs pratiques réelles (ce qu'ils font concrètement). Nous postulons que la position charnière de ces acteurs entre les sans-emploi et les institutions leur permet de créer de nouvelles méthodes d'intervention qui tiennent compte de la conjoncture actuelle. C'est pourquoi nous croyons utile de développer des méthodes d'investigation permettant de mieux comprendre le sens de ces écarts. Nous esquissons les grandes lignes des méthodes que nous privilégions pour ce faire.

Les avantages et les limites de l'approche de l'employabilité exposés dans les lignes qui suivent ont été dégagés à partir d'une analyse des contenus du répertoire des 47 organismes québécois de développement de l'employabilité et de 16 programmes ou ensembles de programmes typiques de cette approche en groupe (Leclerc, Comeau, Maranda 1996).

Les avantages des programmes

Théoriquement, le modèle d'intervention de groupe privilégié dans la majorité des programmes est le modèle développemental. Dans ce modèle, le groupe devient un laboratoire humain, un lieu de prise de conscience de ses effets sur les autres, un lieu d'apprentissage de nouvelles habiletés sociales et un lieu où la personne peut réajuster ses comportements. Le modèle développemental vise aussi le renforcement de l'estime de soi, la reconnaissance de ses forces et de ses limites et la confrontation de ses pensées irrationnelles quant à l'emploi.

Un avantage reconnu de certains de ces programmes est lié au maintien d'activités quotidiennes qui préviennent la manifestation de symptômes liés au stress du chômage et à l'isolement social (doute, épuisement moral, agressivité, découragement, autoculpabilisation, baisse de la confiance en soi et détresse psychologique).

On reconnaît deux autres ensembles de raisons qui font que les personnes évaluent positivement leur participation à un programme d'employabilité. D'une part, l'encadrement que le groupe fournit leur permet de se fixer un but et d'améliorer leurs méthodes de recherche d'emploi. Plusieurs personnes évitent ainsi de se décourager devant l'obligation de faire un curriculum vitæ, de préparer une lettre offrant leurs services ou de cogner aux portes d'employeurs potentiels. D'autre part, le soutien émotif ainsi que le réconfort apportés par le groupe ont des effets positifs sur l'estime de soi et la détermination des participants et participantes.

Un manque de perspective critique

Au-delà de ces avantages, les objectifs et les activités des programmes d'employabilité comportent toutefois des limites importantes. La première limite de l'approche d'employabilité n'est pas liée à la nature intrinsèque des programmes, mais plutôt au manque d'emplois, à la demande d'une adaptation toujours plus exigeante de la main-d'oeuvre et au fait qu'on néglige de se demander par quel renversement de perspective les problèmes structurels de chômage de la société québécoise sont devenus des lacunes chez des personnes trop peu «employables». Il faut en effet critiquer le concept même d'employabilité qui définit l'exclusion comme une responsabilité essentiellement individuelle.

Contrairement aux prévisions optimistes des années 1980, qui laissaient croire que la crise de l'emploi était conjoncturelle et que la prochaine période de croissance économique allait balayer tous les problèmes, on ne peut aujourd'hui que constater l'incapacité des pays industrialisés à créer suffisamment d'emplois pour tout le monde. Plus de trois ans après le début de la reprise économique, le taux de chômage au Québec se maintient autour des 11 %. La durée des périodes de chômage est passée de 16,3 semaines en 1976 à 27,5 semaines en 1995 (Conférence sur le devenir social et économique du Québec 1996). En juin 1996, si on additionnait les 418 000 personnes en chômage (Statistique Canada 1996) aux 439 000 adultes prestataires de l'aide sociale et aptes au travail (ministère de la Sécurité du revenu 1996), on arrivait à un taux réel de sans-emploi de près du quart de la population des adultes et cela, sans compter les «sans-chèque».

La hausse vertigineuse des exigences de performance et de flexibilité accélère un processus d'exclusion qui nous projette dans la société duale décrite par Gorz (1991). D'un côté, on a le noyau de personnes qui ont de bons emplois. De l'autre côté, il y a un nombre croissant de personnes qui détiennent des qualifications devenues obsolètes ou qui ne sont pas de taille pour se mesurer à un marché du travail hypersélectif qui exige expérience, polyvalence, flexibilité, mobilité, spécialisation, diplômes, etc. Entre les deux, il y a tous ceux et celles qui cherchent à améliorer leur sort, mais qui vivent avec la précarité. Dans ce monde là, on s'épuise au travail, on rogne sur sa qualité de vie, mais on risque sans cesse de tomber du côté des exclus. Les plus brutalement touchés par ce mouvement sont les jeunes (qui n'ont pas les années d'expérience voulues et dont le taux de chômage est plus élevé d'environ 6 points de pourcentage par rapport au taux de chômage général), les femmes (liées à leur famille et qui n'ont pas le loisir de se déplacer et d'organiser leur horaire au gré des attentes des employeurs) et enfin les personnes peu scolarisées.

La précarité des emplois se manifeste par du travail à temps partiel et saisonnier, par des contrats de courte durée et des remplacements: plus de 40 % des emplois créés depuis 15 ans sont des emplois à temps partiel; quatre personnes sur dix travaillent à temps partiel, parce qu'elles ne peuvent trouver un emploi à temps plein (Conférence sur le devenir socio-économique du Québec 1996). Un recensement réalisé au début des années 1990 révélait en outre que la moitié des salariés du Québec ne travaillaient pas régulièrement toute l'année (Tremblay 1994).

Dans ce contexte, on comprendra que la motivation et les habiletés génériques ou spécifiques d'employabilité, si pertinentes et développées soient-elles, ne peuvent renverser cette dégringolade de l'emploi. Les activités sur la connaissance du milieu de travail visent à inciter la personne à plus de réalisme, de ténacité et de flexibilité, mais elles mènent rarement à poser la question cruciale : y a-t-il bien de l'emploi pour tout le monde dans une région ou dans un secteur professionnel donné? Il faut savoir et dire que le coeur à l'ouvrage, les qualifications professionnelles et les méthodes de recherche d'emploi, si sophistiquées soient-elles, ne garantissent plus l'obtention ou le maintien d'un emploi.

Les programmes actuels de développement de l'employabilité, du moins tels qu'ils sont officiellement décrits, taisent les chiffres que nous venons d'exposer ainsi que les causes structurelles du chômage. Ce faisant, on rate une occasion d'aider les personnes à prendre conscience que le chômage n'est pas uniquement de leur faute; on ne les aide pas à développer de sains réflexes d'attribution causale externe qui sont pourtant essentiels pour éviter l'autoculpabilisation. Les intervenants

sont pourtant au courant des statistiques et des possibilités restreintes de travail dans leur région. Que font-ils avec cette connaissance?

Une stratégie à la petite cuillère

La deuxième limite des programmes d'employabilité concerne leur mise en oeuvre, qui relève d'une stratégie à la petite cuillère, c'est-à-dire d'une vision sans perspective du développement de l'emploi. En ce qui concerne la gestion et la structure des programmes, même les gouvernements déplorent le fouillis administratif, l'incohérence, le morcellement des interventions sur le terrain. Tout doit être possible dans un laps de temps relativement court : les programmes ont généralement des durées inférieures à un an; ils sont souvent de quelques semaines. La reconduction annuelle des budgets empêche toute planification qui exigerait le développement de compétences ou de stratégies à plus long terme.

Combinées au manque d'emplois, ces contraintes font que les meilleures stratégies d'intervention ne permettent pas l'atteinte des résultats souhaités. Tel que l'indique le rapport Bouchard, Labrie et Noël (1996) sur la réforme de la sécurité du revenu, les résultats des mesures d'employabilité sont plutôt mitigés. Trois constats se dégagent des évaluations faites des programmes d'employabilité. Premièrement, le taux de succès attribuable aux mesures est particulièrement décevant puisqu'il varie entre 6 % et 11 % selon la méthode de calcul qu'on utilise; deuxièmement, la participation à des mesures s'accompagne fréquemment d'une prolongation du séjour à l'aide sociale pour les personnes qui n'ont pas de barrières sérieuses à l'emploi; troisièmement, la portée de ces mesures doit être encore atténuée par le fait que le recours aux emplois subventionnés dans le cadre de ces mesures provoque une hausse artificielle des taux d'intégration en emploi, c'est-à-dire des emplois qui ne durent que le temps des subventions. Les stages, lorsqu'ils font partie des programmes, sont de courte durée et ne mènent pas à l'emploi; ceux mis en place par le ministère de la Sécurité du revenu ont été critiqués à cause du contrôle sur les bénéficiaires jugé abusif et parce qu'ils ne comportent pas de débouchés véritables sur le marché du travail.

Les organismes communautaires, comme les services d'éducation des adultes du réseau public d'éducation, ont peu d'autonomie et de marge de manoeuvre. Ils sont enfermés dans une logique de survie. Rarement consultés au moment de l'élaboration des politiques, ces organismes ont peu de contact avec les lieux de décision. Leur lien se résume souvent à rendre des comptes et à faire la preuve qu'ils se soumettent

aux normes de fonctionnement qu'on leur prescrit. Ce sont des organismes qui embauchent généralement de six à huit personnes, dont quelques-unes à mi-temps, et toutes sans sécurité d'emploi. Il est évidemment très difficile pour ces organismes de construire une critique étayée des règles qu'on leur impose sans un nombre de personnes suffisant pour constituer une masse critique et sans disposer du temps requis. Ces conditions bien concrètes de travail des intervenants les forcent parfois à accepter de donner des formations auxquelles ils n'adhèrent pas nécessairement à cent pour cent. La question est de savoir comment ils se débrouillent pour donner un sens à leur pratique, quand ils doutent de l'à-propos des programmes qu'on leur demande d'offrir, quand ils sentent que les discours officiels d'employabilité ne collent pas aux groupes réels avec lesquels ils travaillent ou quand ils savent que les résultats qu'on leur demande d'atteindre sont irréalistes?

La «mise en marché de soi»

La troisième limite des programmes, tels qu'ils sont décrits, est liée à la prédominance de la recherche d'une meilleure compatibilité personne-environnement. Explicitement ou implicitement, les nombreuses activités de connaissance de soi et du marché du travail ont une seule et même finalité : la «mise en marché de soi». Dans la très grande majorité des programmes examinés, on ne laisse pas de place pour reconnaître les tentatives des personnes qui s'engagent à faire les choses autrement. On ne mise pas non plus autant qu'on le pourrait sur les avantages reconnus du support social et de l'entraide pour améliorer le dynamisme et la santé psychologique des personnes ou pour résister aux effets dévastateurs du chômage. Rien n'est fait pour susciter des projets concrets d'entraide et de développement solidaire. Le développement d'un support social et d'habiletés alternatives est trop souvent négligé au profit de développement d'habiletés sociales essentiellement adaptatives.

Entre les programmes prescrits, les modèles d'action épousés et les pratiques réelles

Dans ce contexte, doit-on conclure à l'inefficacité et surtout à l'inutilité des programmes d'employabilité? Faut-il réclamer leur abolition? Une lecture rapide de la situation peut amener à répondre par l'affirmative à cette question. La réponse sera toutefois différente si on admet que les solutions ne se trouvent pas uniquement dans le développement d'habiletés sociales adaptatives et dans la soumission des intervenants aux programmes qu'on leur dit de mettre en oeuvre. Un autre type de questions se pose alors. N'existe-t-il pas déjà des pratiques plus

implicites dans le cadre de ces programmes qui sont porteuses de solutions pertinentes pour les clientèles en crise? Même si les intervenants agissent à l'intérieur de contraintes leur laissant peu de marge de manoeuvre, peut-on tout de même penser qu'ils puissent outrepasser le discours officiel pour laisser place à la créativité et à l'innovation sociales?

En se référant à Giddens (1987), il est permis de croire que ces acteurs d'un vaste système exercent un certain contrôle leur permettant «d'influencer les circonstances de l'action d'autres acteurs ou groupes d'acteurs» (p. 346). Ils «ont une connaissance remarquable des conditions et des conséquences de ce qu'ils font dans leur vie de tous les jours» (p. 343), ce qui les rend très compétents pour nous instruire sur ces pratiques.

Mais voilà qu'on connaît peu de choses de ces pratiques plus implicites. Afin de les révéler et d'en comprendre le sens, il importe de se rapprocher des intervenants et de les aider à nommer les modèles d'action qui guident leur pratique au quotidien. Notre façon de reconnaître au grand jour cette partie cachée de la compétence qu'ils ont développée se fonde sur ce que nous appelons la gymnastique du double écart qu'ils pratiquent quotidiennement dans leur animation des programmes d'employabilité.

Le premier écart se situe entre les théories professées (ou épousées) par les intervenants et leurs pratiques réelles, c'est-à-dire entre ce qu'ils disent faire, conformément à leur intention ou à leurs valeurs, et ce qu'ils font concrètement. La méthode d'émergence des modèles d'action peut permettre d'examiner cet écart entre le professé et le pratiqué.

Le deuxième écart se situe entre le travail prescrit et les pratiques réelles des intervenants. Le travail prescrit est constitué des programmes, des méthodes et des discours officiels qui font l'objet de contrôles et de reddition de comptes. On y adhère plus ou moins selon les circonstances et la marge de manoeuvre dont on dispose. Si orthodoxes soient-ils, les intervenants admettent généralement la nécessité de prendre quelques libertés avec les règles de ce travail prescrit pour donner un sens à leur pratique, pour réduire le fossé entre les situations concrètes des participants et les théories de l'employabilité à appliquer ou encore pour obtenir des résultats satisfaisants sur le plan humain, même s'ils ne sont pas strictement centrés sur la multiplication et l'intensification de démarches de recherche d'emploi. Leur travail quotidien avec les personnes en recherche d'emploi nécessite une certaine part de tricheries, d'astuces et de ruses. La méthode permettant d'examiner ce deuxième écart entre le prescrit et le réel s'inspire du cadre de la psychodynamique du travail.

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La méthode d'émergence des modèles d'action

Pour composer avec les exigences prescrites des programmes, pour fournir un service qui soit le plus adapté possible aux clientèles et pour répondre à ses propres besoins, les intervenants développent des façons de voir et de faire qui donnent un sens à leur pratique et qu'ils considèrent efficaces : ce sont leurs modèles d'action. Dans la mesure où la valeur opérationnelle de ces modèles est minimalement confirmée dans la pratique, le praticien les répète. Bourassa et Serre (1994, 1997) ont tenté de décrire plus précisément la constitution d'un modèle d'action et ses trois principales composantes : les représentations, les intentions et les stratégies. Elles sont intimement liées et s'interinfluencent de façon circulaire et en lien avec l'environnement.

La représentation est à la fois «le produit et le processus d'une activité mentale par laquelle un individu ou un groupe d'individus reconstitue le réel auquel il est confronté et lui attribue une signification spécifique» (Abric 1994, p. 13). Constituées d'un «système organisé d'opinions, d'attitudes, de croyances se référant à un objet ou une situation» (Abric 1993, p. 188), ces représentations jouent un rôle déterminant dans la construction et la reproduction de ses pratiques professionnelles. Elles émergent d'une analyse plus ou moins consciente et parfois assez sommaire d'une situation.

Les intentions et les stratégies sont deux autres constituantes importantes d'un modèle d'action par lequel le praticien cherche à reproduire certains résultats souhaités. En plus de décoder et d'interpréter une situation en l'assimilant à d'autres situations similaires (la représentation), le praticien formule des intentions d'action (ce qu'il veut faire, ce qu'il veut provoquer) qui s'opérationalisent par des moyens concrets (stratégies) qu'il privilégie pour arriver à ses fins.

L'étude approfondie du contenu des modèles d'action dans les programmes d'employabilité peut permettre de bien comprendre la rationalité des pratiques réelles. Mais l'accès à cette information n'est pas nécessairement évidente. Schön (1994) précise qu'il est souvent difficile pour le praticien d'expliquer pourquoi il fait ce qu'il fait. Il répète ses modèles d'action de façon spontanée selon les situations devenues de plus en plus contrôlées et prévisibles avec le temps. Son savoir, précise-t-il, tend à devenir tacite et difficile à expliciter. Il ira même jusqu'à fournir des modèles de compréhension de sa conduite qui ne correspondent pas à ce que son action révèle; c'est ce que Schön appelle l'écart entre la théorie épousée (ou professée) et la théorie pratiquée. Le praticien est habitué de réfléchir dans l'action; toutefois la reconnaissance et la compréhension des modèles d'action exigent

une réflexion sur l'action. Cet exercice est grandement facilité si le praticien bénéficie de l'aide d'un accompagnateur.

La méthode d'émergence des modèles d'action développée par Bourassa et Serre (1997) permet cet accompagnement des acteurs dans leur tentative d'explicitation des modèles d'action qui caractérisent leur pratique professionnelle. Par cette méthode réflexive, l'accompagnateur incite l'acteur à s'appuyer d'abord sur des faits issus d'incidents critiques (ce qui se produit concrètement dans sa pratique), et sur les comportements précis qu'il pose dans différentes situations (stratégies). Partant de là, l'accompagnateur invite le praticien à identifier les intentions qui se cachent derrière ses stratégies pour ensuite étudier le contenu des représentations qui gouvernent son action. Ce processus d'analyse du concret (les faits) vers l'abstrait (les intentions et les représentations) facilite le travail de réflexion sur l'action et permet de retracer avec plus de certitude la théorie pratiquée de l'acteur.

La méthode de l'enquête de psychodynamique du travail

En complément de cette méthode, les travaux de la psychodynamique du travail apportent un éclairage essentiel pour comprendre la nécessité de procéder par des entrevues collectives puisqu'il s'agira de questionner non seulement un sujet singulier, mais aussi l'acteur qui vit une situation similaire à celle d'autres acteurs soumis aux mêmes prescriptions et aux mêmes contraintes (Carpentier Roy 1992). En visant à reconnaître et à renforcer la dimension collective de leur travail, ces entrevues en groupe visent l'émergence d'un espace commun de discussion des règles du travail. Dans ce lieu de parole, les intervenants s'apprivoisent et s'exposent au jugement de leurs collègues dans l'espoir d'obtenir leur reconnaissance. Cela suppose non seulement un consentement des individus à participer à une recherche, mais un désir de tisser des liens de confiance qui passent par une prise de risque identitaire liée au dévoilement de leurs ruses, tricheries et astuces, mais aussi de leurs stratégies individuelles de survie et de défense contre la souffrance.

Conclusion

La démarche que nous privilégions est un moyen de révélation de stratégies singulières, mais aussi le chemin d'accès pour révéler des situations collectives. Cette mise à jour et cette mise en commun des pratiques réelles qui s'éloignent des programmes officiels et des théories professées est la condition préalable à la légitimation, à l'élucidation

et à l'émergence de nouvelles pratiques d'employabilité. Sans être une panacée, ces pratiques seront porteuses de solutions qui tiennent mieux compte de la conjoncture actuelle. Si cette démarche n'est pas de nature à transformer les conditions structurelles qui affectent le marché de l'emploi, elle permettra au minimum de révéler les contradictions et les doubles contraintes des programmes, puis d'en réduire les effets aliénants et culpabilisants, tant pour les intervenants qui ne parviennent pas à appliquer les théories de développement de l'employabilité que pour les sans-emploi qui ne réussissent pas à se conformer aux exigences de performance et de flexibilité que leur imposent les discours de la «mise en marché de soi».

Ce qui se produit dans des entrevues collectives, c'est la transposition de la situation singulière d'une personne à la conscience de ce qu'il y a de collectif dans ce qu'elle pense et dans ce qu'elle fait. Lorsque les intervenants s'engagent dans la délibération et la discussion publique des règles de leur travail en parlant de ce qu'ils font pour de vrai, lorsque la porte de leur local est fermée, ils commencent à stabiliser certaines de leurs trouvailles ou découvertes et à en rejeter d'autres. L'usage de cette parole crée une sagesse pratique. Elle est «nécessaire pour pouvoir intégrer les découvertes [individuelles] de l'intelligence rusée dans les règles du travail. C'est à cette condition que les règles du travail peuvent évoluer, et qu'au-delà, l'organisation du travail peut être rationnellement transformée» (Dejours 1993, p. 62).

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Les technologies de l'information dans le contexte du counselling d'emploi

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Introduction

Développement des ressources humaines Canada (DRHC) offre un soutien aux personnes qui ont de la difficulté à trouver et à garder un emploi convenable en les aidant à s'adapter aux réalités changeantes du marché du travail. En effet, les centres locaux de ressources humaines ou leurs partenaires un peu partout au Canada offrent des services de counselling d'emploi. Ces services sont conçus pour aider les clients à cerner leurs besoins en matière d'emploi, à se fixer un objectif de carrière approprié, à améliorer leur employabilité pour qu'il leur soit plus facile d'intégrer le marché du travail et à leur conférer l'autonomie nécessaire pour trouver et garder un emploi convenable. Nous verrons dans quel contexte le counselling d'emploi est offert à nos clients et nous examinerons un modèle de boîte à outils de produits automatisés ou disponibles à partir d'Internet.

Contexte dans lequel est offert le counselling d'emploi

Pour comprendre comment les services d'emploi utilisent les nouvelles technologies de l'information, nous situerons d'abord le contexte dans lequel le counselling est défini et assuré. Ainsi, au cours des trois dernières années, DRHC s'est employé à préciser la fonction counselling d'emploi, laquelle comporte «une ou plusieurs interventions qui ont pour but d'aider les clients à trouver et à résoudre les problèmes qu'ils doivent affronter au moment de prendre des décisions liées à l'emploi et lors de l'exécution de telles décisions.»

Le modèle du processus de counselling d'emploi se compose des éléments suivants :

- l'évaluation des besoins—activité fondée sur la collaboration et au cours de laquelle le conseiller aide les clients à cerner leurs besoins en matière d'emploi;
- l'établissement des objectifs—activité au cours de laquelle le conseiller aide les clients à trouver des moyens réalistes, mesurables et réalisables d'atteindre leur objectif d'emploi;
- l'élaboration d'un plan d'action convenu entre le conseiller et le client devant permettre d'atteindre l'objectif d'emploi;
- la mise en oeuvre du plan d'action convenu qui peut comporter d'autres séances de counselling;
- le suivi du processus de counselling mené auprès des clients qui en ont besoin pour atteindre leur objectif d'emploi.

L'aide prodiguée couvre quatre secteurs, lesquels correspondent aux quatre grandes dimensions de l'employabilité qui mènent à l'intégration au marché du travail et à l'autonomie.

1. Choix d'une profession et d'une carrière : évaluer ses intérêts, ses préférences et ses compétences, ainsi que la situation du marché; explorer les différentes options de carrière; faire des choix professionnels ou cerner les options de carrière; établir les critères qui régiront les choix de carrière de rechange; élaborer un plan d'action.
2. Perfectionnement professionnel et amélioration des compétences : déterminer la formation qu'il faut acquérir pour réussir dans l'exercice d'une profession donnée.
3. Techniques de recherche d'emploi : développer certaines compétences, comme apprendre à rédiger un curriculum vitæ, à utiliser l'information sur le marché du travail, à établir des réseaux d'entraide et à se présenter aux entrevues.
4. Compétences requises pour conserver un emploi : cerner les obstacles qui nuisent à la stabilité de l'emploi et acquérir les comportements nécessaires pour conserver son emploi.

Un modèle de boîte à outils automatisés ou disponibles sur Internet

DRHC a récemment mené une étude sur un certain nombre de produits et de systèmes actuellement sur le marché ou à l'essai, et qui sont censés aider les gens à s'évaluer et à gérer des données sur le travail et les possibilités de carrière.

Il existe des outils d'auto-évaluation à l'aide desquels les clients recensent leurs intérêts, leurs valeurs et leurs compétences dans le but de faire un choix de carrière. Certains programmes permettent de relever, parmi les emplois offerts, ceux qui correspondent au profil de compétences des clients. On trouve même, à l'échelle nationale, des systèmes électroniques qui renvoient à d'autres produits et services utiles en matière de planification de carrière. Par ailleurs, on teste actuellement le recours à l'Internet pour diffuser de l'information et fournir l'accès aux différents produits et services. Un plus grand nombre de personnes pourront obtenir de l'information relative au counselling d'emploi en passant par un système en réseau.

Il ressort de plus en plus de la recherche et de la pratique que la technologie de l'information vient se greffer au travail entrepris entre le conseiller et le client. Les programmes informatiques donnent accès à plus d'information, aident les clients à se définir et, parfois, à clarifier leurs besoins et leurs orientations futures. Les conseillers aident les clients à se servir de la technologie, à analyser et à interpréter les renseignements recueillis et à prendre une décision éclairée. Dans certains cas, les conseillers peuvent puiser des conseils dans les systèmes informatisés.

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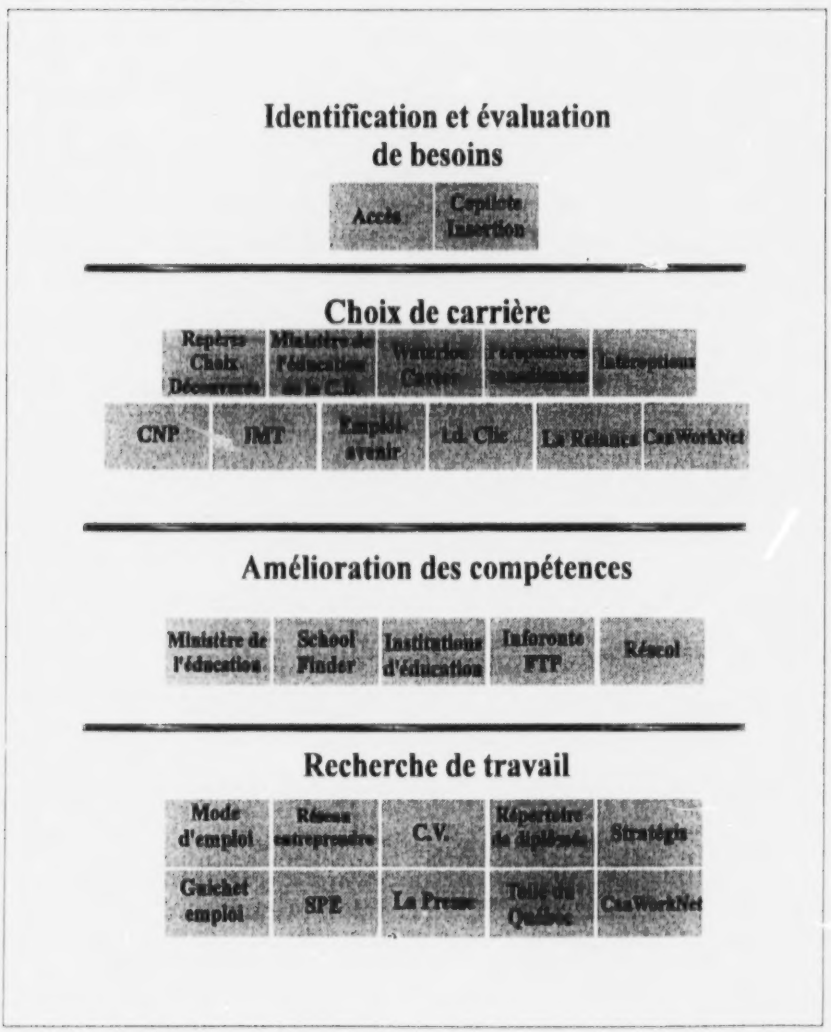
Nous examinerons une variété de produits assistés par ordinateur qui sont à la disposition des conseillers et des clients. La liste présentée n'est pas exhaustive, mais elle donne une idée de la gamme des produits offerts. La figure 1 illustre un modèle de processus et de produits qui s'insèrent dans les catégories suivantes (organisé selon les dimensions de l'employabilité de DRHC) : (1) outils d'identification et d'évaluation des besoins; (2) choix de carrière; (3) amélioration des compétences; et (4) recherche de travail.

Tous ces produits sont disponibles sur Internet à l'exception de Accès; Copilote Insertion; Repères, Choix, Découverte; Interoptions et; Classification nationale des professions (CNP).

Figure 1 Programmes assistés par ordinateur dans le contexte du counselling d'emploi et de carrière des services d'emploi du Canada



1. Outils d'identification et d'évaluation des besoins

Accès

Accès est un système multimédia libre-service permettant aux clients de déterminer leurs besoins potentiels en programmes ou en services lorsqu'ils demandent des prestations d'assurance-emploi (en cours d'élaboration et d'expérimentation).

Copilote Insertion

Le Copilote Insertion est un questionnaire informatisé conçu pour aider les chercheurs d'emploi et les conseillers en emploi à déterminer la nature des difficultés que posent la recherche d'emploi et l'insertion professionnelle. Il permet de fournir un rapport pour aider conseillers et clients à préciser les points forts et les points à travailler de ces derniers et à établir un plan d'action (en cours d'adaptation et d'expérimentation).

2. Choix de carrière

Repères, Choix, Découverte

Depuis de nombreuses années, les conseillers et les agences d'orientation professionnelle et de counselling d'emploi utilisent l'un ou l'autre de ces trois instruments automatisés d'information et d'exploration. Les trois systèmes permettent aux clients de faire leur auto-évaluation, de prendre des décisions et d'établir leur plan d'action. Ils leur donnent également accès aux bases de données des programmes et des établissements d'enseignement et de formation.

Ministère de l'éducation de la Colombie-Britannique

Le Bureau de la technologie et de l'éducation à distance du ministère de l'éducation de la Colombie-Britannique dispose d'une page d'accueil sur Internet qui propose un cours sur le choix de carrière comprenant des modules sur l'auto-évaluation, la prise de décision et la planification.

Les élèves de la province peuvent aussi communiquer par courrier électronique avec un conseiller en orientation. Adresse Internet : http://www.etc.bc.ca/provdocs/careers/home.html

Centre des carrières de l'Université de Waterloo

Ce site Internet offre aux clients des exercices portant sur la planification de carrière. Si vous étudiez à l'université, vous avez la possibilité de communiquer par courrier électronique avec un conseiller en orientation. Adresse Internet : http://www.adm.uwaterloo.ca:80/infocecs/CRC/manual-home.html

Perspectives canadiennes

Ce tabloïd d'orientation professionnelle renferme une foule d'articles et de jeux questionnaires visant à communiquer aux Canadiens des renseignements sur le monde du travail. Adresse Internet : http://www.globalx.net/ocd/prosindexf.html

Interoptions

Cette version informatisée de l'Inventaire canadien des intérêts reliés au travail (ICIT) a été conçue pour aider les clients à explorer le monde du travail en fonction de leurs intérêts professionnels (disponible auprès de Multi-Health Systems).

Guide sur les carrières (CNP)

Ce guide de référence pour l'orientation professionnelle classifie 897 groupes professionnels du Canada (disponible auprès du Groupe Communication Canada).

Information sur le marché du travail (IMT)

Le Système national d'information sur le marché du travail permet d'accéder, par voie électronique, à des produits d'information sur le marché du travail à l'intention des travailleurs, des entreprises et des organismes. Le système fournit de l'information sur les secteurs économiques en déclin et en expansion, et sur les exigences du marché du travail. Adresse Internet : http://204.191.126.76/imt.html

Emploi-Avenir

Cet instrument spécialisé est destiné aux conseillers en orientation professionnelle, aux étudiants, aux parents et aux gens qui veulent obtenir des renseignements pour planifier leur carrière ou revenir sur le marché du travail. Le site présente également des prévisions sur l'évolution du marché du travail et les perspectives d'emploi au cours des cinq prochaines années. Emploi-Avenir est disponible auprès du Groupe Communication Canada et sur Internet à l'adresse suivante : http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/hrdc/corp/strapol/jobs/francais/index.html

i.d. Clic

Ce site Internet est consacré à l'exploration des secteurs d'emploi et de formation offerts au Québec, de même qu'à l'organisation de la vie étudiante. S'adressant d'abord aux personnes âgées de 15 à 23 ans, i.d. Clic offre plus de 500 pages Web d'informations et de photos sur le marché du travail, et comporte des entrevues, des chroniques, des babillards, des index de ressources, etc., en plus de nombreux trucs et conseils sur la façon de trouver un logement et d'établir un budget. Adresse Internet : http://idclic.collegebdeb.qc.ca/

La relance au collégial

La relance au collégial est une publication diffusée par le ministère de l'Éducation du Québec dans le but de faire connaître la situation des diplômés des programmes d'études préuniversitaires et techniques. La période de référence est le 31 mars, soit dix mois après la fin de leurs études collégiales. Adresse Internet : http://www.meq.gouv.qc.ca/dgecsite/texte/relance.htm

CanWorkNet

CanWorkNet est une bibliothèque virtuelle sur Internet qui donne accès à des sources d'information, entre autres sur la planification de carrière, la recherche d'emploi et le recrutement, provenant des gouvernements fédéral et provinciaux, des entreprises, de groupes communautaires et d'autres organisations dans tout le pays. Adresse Internet : http://www.canworknet.ca

3. Amélioration des compétences

Ministère de l'Éducation

Le site du ministère de l'Éducation du Québec fournit de l'information sur différents thèmes portant sur l'éducation, les ressources éducatives, les prêts et bourses. Adresse Internet : hhtp://www.meq.gouv.qc.ca/

School Finder

Ce site Internet fournit de l'information sur les programmes de niveaux collégial et universitaire au Canada. Il est possible de faire des recherches par programmes d'enseignement. Adresse Internet : http://www.schoolfinder.com/

Institutions d'éducation

Le site fournit la liste de tous les collèges et universités au Québec. On retrouve des sites similaires dans chaque province. Adresse Internet : http://www.toile.qc.ca/quebec/qceduc.htm

Inforoute FTP

Inforoute FTP est un des sites du ministère de l'Éducation du Québec qui porte sur la formation professionnelle. Ce site s'adresse aux étudiants et intervenants dans le domaine de la formation professionnelle. Il fournit des ressources et donne accès à des forums de discussion. Adresse Internet : http://www.inforoutefpt.org/

Rescol

Le site vise à améliorer les perspectives de formation dans les écoles du Canada en reliant ces dernières par voie électronique. Rescol permet

également aux élèves et aux professeurs d'avoir un meilleur accès aux ressources pédagogiques nationales et internationales. Adresse Internet : http://www.rescol.ca/

4. Recherche de travail

Mode d'emploi

Le site de Mode d'emploi se veut un prolongement de l'émission produite par Télé-Québec. Il offre un ensemble de ressources relatives à l'emploi. Vous pourrez y trouver les thèmes traités et les invités de l'émission de la semaine. Chaque semaine également, une page est consacrée aux emplois offerts pendant l'émission. La section Les outils de Mode d'emploi regroupe sous quatre rubriques un ensemble de ressources et de renseignements tirés des chroniques présentées à l'émission : les techniques de recherche d'emploi, les règles du jeu du marché de l'emploi, l'entrepreneurship et la formation. Adresse Internet : http://www.telequebec.qc.ca/emploi/

Réseau entreprendre

Ce site Internet fournit des ressources pour les travailleurs autonomes, par exemple, sur la façon de se partir en affaire. On peut y inscrire sa carte d'affaire. Adresse Internet : http://www.toile.qc.ca/quebec/qccomm.htm

Répertoire des diplômés

Ce site a été développé par le ministère de l'Industrie et de la Science du Canada. Les finissants de niveau universitaire peuvent y inscrire leur curriculum vitæ et les employeurs des offres d'emploi. Les institutions d'enseignement valident l'information fournie par les finissants. Adresse Internet : http://rnd.rescol.ca/

Stratégis

Ce site fournit des statistiques relatives à l'industrie canadienne. Pour chaque secteur et sous-secteur, on y trouve une description des activités et, pour les dernières années, de l'évolution de l'emploi, des traitements et des indicateurs de rendement. Ce site est particulièrement utile pour la personne en quête d'emploi qui désire travailler dans un secteur particulier de l'économie. Adresse Internet : http://strategis.ic.gc.ca/frndoc/main.html

Guichet emploi

Cet outil permet aux clients de trouver eux-mêmes des possibilités d'emploi qui leur conviennent parmi les offres des employeurs. L'imprimé produit par le système donne des renseignements de base

concernant chaque offre d'emploi et la manière de communiquer avec l'employeur. Adresse Internet : http://ein.ccia.st-thomas.on.ca/agencies/cec/jobbank/national/index_f.html

Service de placement électronique

Les clients peuvent utiliser librement ce système informatisé qui jumelle leur profil de compétences aux profils de compétences recherchées des emplois disponibles. Adresse Internet : http://www.ele-spe.org

La Presse

Ce site reproduit toutes les offres d'emploi parues dans la section Carrières et Professions du journal *La Presse*. Adresse Internet : http://www.monster.com/probec/

Toile du Québec

Ce site est le seul répertoire à vocation exhaustive des sites québécois. Le classement par catégorie permet aux «internautes» de mieux se retrouver dans la multitude de sites et ainsi planifier des séances de navigation plus productives. On y retrouve aussi une section spéciale consacrée à l'emploi. Adresse Internet : http://www.toile.qc.ca/quebec/qccom_em.htm

Conclusion

Le recours aux systèmes informatisés peut améliorer la prestation des services de counselling d'emploi et de carrière offerts par DRHC ou par ses partenaires. Grâce à l'ordinateur et aux systèmes de communication, les clients, en particulier ceux et celles provenant des régions éloignées, peuvent bénéficier d'un meilleur accès aux services d'information dans le domaine du counselling d'emploi et de carrière.

Le succès de cette démarche suppose une interaction conseiller-client-accès à l'information. Il est peu probable que l'accès à l'information par les ordinateurs finisse par supplanter un nombre appréciable de conseillers; au contraire, la demande de services de counselling direct pourrait augmenter du fait qu'il est plus facile d'avoir accès à l'information. Pour faire des choix de carrière éclairés, les clients devront encore peser le pour et le contre de certaines options et en discuter avec des gens compétents.

Lifelong learning and career development: The need for a learner-centred approach

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Introduction

This brief paper discusses lifelong learning issues with regard to adult learners. More specifically, it focuses on the learner's perspective and a learner-centred approach to learning. More than 20 years ago, Knowles labelled the adult learner a "neglected species" (Knowles 1973). In large part, adult learners are still forgotten and invisible in today's education and training system.

The information in this paper is based mainly on first-hand experience. Two levels of experience have been drawn on. One level is organizational—the experience of our company, which is in international trade. The company has been in contact with educational and training institutions to identify learning opportunities for the staff as well as to outsource our training. It has also been addressing learning in the workplace, including introducing some experimental programs. The other level of experience is individual: first, this writer's personal experience as a continuous learner who has undertaken learning projects that include courses and seminars from educational and training institutions; second, the experience of fellow adult learners, which has been casually shared with this writer over time.

The education and training system: Adult learners' experience

For many ordinary adult learners, the current education and training system is extremely complex and confusing. It is in fact a learning jungle. No one seems to know the whole spectrum of the programs offered. If courses and seminars offered by non-traditional program providers are included—such as the proliferating training companies and consultants—the range is phenomenal. This, by itself, is a major cause of the complexity and confusion. Here are some problems that ordinary learners typically encounter. They do not necessarily provide a comprehensive picture.

Course selection

Calendars and brochures from providers such as colleges, universities, boards of education, private vocational schools, and private companies, appear to offer a lot of information. In our experience, however, useful information for learners is extremely limited.

Problem 1

Learners need to be sophisticated just to read (or decode) and compare the various calendars and brochures, which present pertinent information differently. And with the recent cutbacks, which are compromising quality and quantity of education, learners need to be even more perceptive. In one instance, a large educational institution whose continuing education course fees are already high has quietly reduced the instruction hours for the same fees. The presentation format in the calendar is exactly the same as before. Therefore, unless learners pay very close attention, they are unable to spot the change.

Problem 2

Learners soon realize that comprehensive information is lacking. Each program provider can at best tell learners what it is offering. Even this type of information is not easy to obtain these days. When learners dial so-called information phone numbers to get more information, most of the time they get just endless taped messages. With some luck, learners can reach a human being at the other end of the line, but without exception that person is an administrative staff member. For this reason, learners' crucial learning-related questions such as those about instructors' credentials, course contents, outlines, method of teaching, or workload cannot be answered, even if the person is eager to help. Normally, those answering the phone get the person in charge, typically the program coordinator, to call back, or they give the caller the coordinator's name. We found that frequently the program coordinators are hard to reach because they work part-time, they are unavailable in the evening, or they never return phone calls.

Problem 3

Even if learners finally get "the right person" to ask questions, they are disappointed to be told that this person does not have or is not prepared to share the information. Often the person says that the only way for learners to find the answers is to sign up for the course, with payment, and attend the first class. When asked to compare courses offered with comparable courses elsewhere, the typical response is "Theirs is theirs, ours is ours," implying "Take it or leave it." By this time, many learners give up or guess and hope for the best in their course selection.

Problem 4

This guessing game in course selection is not cheap; making arrangements to go to the first class itself incurs costs. Then if learners find out the course is not what they expected, they are charged administration fees to change or drop the course. The pressure to make

a selection hastily with insufficient information became more intense recently when at least one institution started charging to put a name on its waiting list.

The problems outlined above occurred at larger traditional educational institutions. In general, there is less difficulty with smaller or private institutions; however, even here, learners are not guaranteed useful and relevant information.

Beyond course selection

The problems with course selection described above are just the beginning of many difficult episodes that learners encounter with the current education and training system. Even if course selection is uneventful, learners' struggles continue as they go through the system. What follow are learners' typical experiences with the system.

Instructors

There is little doubt that the current education and training setting challenges instructors who are expected to teach an adult learner population with diverse backgrounds, skills, knowledge, and levels of preparation. Nonetheless, the quality of instructors and their teaching varies. Some instructors are extremely skilful, capable, and enthusiastic, their courses well thought through, others obviously lack teaching skills and enthusiasm, or offer unorganized courses. One extreme example is the instructor who had little enthusiasm in teaching the course and no control over the class. He was obviously extremely unhappy with his day-time job, and the only thing learners remembered after the course was his endless unhappy stories about his work.

Changes in programs and courses

Courses are frequently cancelled, mostly at the last moment, if there is insufficient enrolment. In other instances, especially in language courses, if there are insufficient students for one course, students working at different levels are bunched together. The result is confusion for instructor and students about what level they are studying and what the next level is. Program changes (revisions or cancellations) occur mostly without notice, sometimes preventing learners from receiving their certificates. Switching from one institution to another to continue their program is not easy. The change is another lengthy and frustrating process—the last thing adult learners, who have competing priorities and time constraints, want to go through.

Independent learning and correspondence courses

If independent learning courses and correspondence courses are run properly, they are well suited to adult learners. These learning modes are new to most learners whose experiences are almost exclusively in teacher-led, in-class settings. Nonetheless, there is very limited guidance and support for learners who use these learning modes. One independent learning centre has outdated equipment that often breaks down, no instruction or guidance for learners, inconvenient hours for consultation, a phone line that is so busy that it is difficult to reach the instructor, and instructors are changed and students told only later.

Effect on learners

In summary, our experience with the current education and training system has been one of considerable frustration and struggle. Most of the time, the system is not learner-friendly; rather, it makes things harder for learners. The learner population is very much underserved and isolated, and its voice is hardly heard since it has little time to raise the issues unless they are unbearable. Moreover, it has little knowledge of the appropriate channels for redress. With insufficient information and guidance, and less than desirable infrastructure and learning resources, learners muddle through the system in a hit-or-miss fashion, if they do not give up their learning altogether.

Now, technology offers learners opportunities and challenges. There are two illusions that learners and program providers need to be aware of:

- Modern technology can produce a large number of high-quality workers by itself. Technology does not, however, automatically guarantee learning.
- By utilizing technology, students can learn instantly. Substantive learning, however, takes time and hard work, and does not occur as an overnight miracle.

Provider-centred system

As illustrated above, the current education and training system is predominantly provider-centred. Providers see the system from their territorial perspective only, and their vision is limited and self-interested. In this context, coordination among providers and their programs is at best elusive and quite often impossible (Terry 1996). Most program providers appear to be too preoccupied generating revenue to look

into learners' needs. This tendency seems to be increasing in these days of government cutbacks. After receiving an overwhelming number of glossy, multicoloured brochures and calendars from education and training providers—yet becoming considerably frustrated trying to obtain useful information—one would be tempted to conclude that hard-sell marketing strategies far exceed any other consideration.

Conversely, learners see and are interested in a bigger picture of the education and training system. They are mainly concerned about whether the system or specific courses can meet their specific needs. With this consideration, innovation in learning information services for adults in a community—educational brokering—initiated by the Workers' Education Association of Canada is worth close attention (Terry 1996). Overall, a significant gap exists between what the current system offers and what learners need and expect. Areas in need of attention in the education and training system include:

- coordination and linkages of programs and courses offered by providers
- standards, regulations, a code of ethics, and quality control over the instructors and courses offered
- attention to learners' actual learning and "customer service"

The need for a learner-centred approach

An alternative to the provider-centred approach is a learner-centred approach, in which learners take ownership of their own learning—that is, they are proactive and take the initiative. Their relationship with the education and training system is interactive, not passive.

Researchers long ago noted two key findings that strongly support this approach to learning:

1. Knowles noted that our educational system is "poor preparation for continuing to learn throughout a lifetime" because the system only teaches students how to be taught—reactive learning—and does not teach them how to learn. Knowles continues to say that "we have an obligation to help our students learn other, proactive ways of learning. For in adult life, learning will take place for the most part only if the learner takes the initiative; teachers are not as omnipresent." (Knowles 1973, 176)
2. One finding in Tough's research on learning is that professionally provided or guided learning makes up only about 20 percent of the adult's learning efforts. This means professionally provided or guided learning such as courses, classes, workshops, correspondence study, apprenticeships, tutorials, and educational TV is a small portion. Eighty percent of the total picture is self-planned or self-directed learning (Tough 1985).

Our fast-changing workplace is now placing unprecedented importance on learning itself as well as on the learner-centered approach. Many recognize that the world of work is undergoing massive change, coupled with technological revolution. This new reality offers opportunities and challenges: we have new freedom to change course midstream and set off on a new career, yet for many people the security of stable, full-time employment has given way to insecure, temporary, contract, and part-time employment, leading some writers to predict the imminent arrival of a "jobless society" (Bridges 1994, Rifkin 1995).

More than ever, career security must come from within, from our own initiative in developing our knowledge and skills. Each person needs to be viable as an entity, taking ownership and initiative in his/her learning, regardless of employment status.

In the business sector, training and retraining are mostly viewed as the cure-all for all changes in the workplace. In this evolving business environment, however, the relevance of traditional training based on one-way transfer of predefined skills and knowledge requires reconsideration.

Learner-centred approach in action

Tough's pioneering work is full of helpful ideas to put the proactive, self-directed approach to learning into practice. Tough distinguishes, two areas of competency required for successful self-directed and planned learning projects (Tough 1971):

- Skills as a planner—skills in planning and arranging learning. Learners perform such tasks as choosing their goal, planning the learning activities, obtaining appropriate resources, and estimating their level of knowledge and skills.
- Learning skills—competency in actually learning. This includes skills such as listening, taking notes, reading, and memorizing.

Competency in learning is mostly the conventional focus of skills development. Development of learner's skills in planning, and arranging has in large part yet to be addressed. In a professionally provided learning situation, which is dominant within the current provider-centred system, the teacher or instructor plans and arranges.

Our company has taken steps to address learning issues and to promote learning within this increasingly competitive environment. Three key factors are at issues here: the complex nature of our business (international trade), the diverse and complicated operation as a multinational company, and the reorganization and restructuring within the Canadian operation.

What follows is a very brief description of two of our experimental programs that focus on learner-centred, proactive learning. (A detailed description and preliminary appraisal of these and other programs can be found in Ogisu-Kamiya 1997). The programs are designed to build staff competency in proactive learning in areas such as

- identifying individual learning needs, learning opportunities, and resources
- developing individual learning objectives within the context of career development and the company's organizational objectives
- reflecting on completed learning in order to consider their need for their future learning, and in order to apply their acquired skills and knowledge to their day-to-day work.

These programs have stimulated the personal learning initiatives of the staff to new levels. The staff have started to gain skills in proactive learning.

Guided self-directed learning project

Target group

New staff

Objectives

1. To develop a learning focus at the beginning.
2. To serve as a catalyst for the staff's continuous learning.

Duration

Three-month probation period

Steps

1. Company guidance, which is included in an individually tailored orientation.
2. Topic selection and research on industry (international trade), or company's operation and activities or product(s) of interest.
3. Learner's written report, due at the end of the probation period.

Professional development program

Target group

Existing staff

Objectives

To develop skills and knowledge with emphasis on process as well as content of the learning.

Components

1. Full company-sponsored and/or organized programs
2. Company-supported self-directed development

Steps (for self-directed scheme)

1. Identify learning needs in consultation with supervisor.
2. Prepare and submit a written learning proposal.
3. Submit a report on learning, upon completion.

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L'implication des partenaires dans le retour en formation des adultes

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Introduction

Une formation, peu importe son type, n'est pas une action dénudée de sens. Elle a nécessairement pour objectif de répondre à des besoins individuels ou d'organisation. Par formation, on entend une activité éducative structurée qui peut prendre la forme d'un cours isolé ou d'un programme menant à la diplomation créditée et reconnue. Il existe des formations déjà conçues qui sont offertes habituellement dans des institutions d'enseignement. Il existe aussi d'autres formations qui sont développées et ajustées à des besoins précis. Ces demandes sont bien souvent confiées à des centres de formation spécialisés ou sont prises en charge par les milieux de travail.

Quel que soit le contexte du retour en formation d'un adulte, que nous appelons apprenant adulte, l'activité éducative l'impliquera nécessairement de même qu'un formateur et, selon les circonstances, d'autres acteurs. Ces derniers sont le demandeur de formation, par exemple un employeur, et des intervenants tels des conseillers spécialisés en main-d'oeuvre, en emploi ou en orientation. Ces spécialistes ont souvent comme rôle d'assister l'apprenant dans sa démarche et son processus de formation. Nous croyons que ce dernier doit être bien compris des acteurs qui interviennent afin que leur investissement soit le plus profitable possible.

C'est donc dans le but d'aider principalement les intervenants qui, la plupart du temps, ne sont pas des experts de la formation des adultes et du processus de formation que nous présentons le texte suivant. À partir d'une revue de la littérature, de son analyse et de nos expériences, nous exposerons d'abord les phases du processus de formation et ensuite les principales caractéristiques de l'adulte en lien avec l'apprentissage. De même, nous présenterons les éléments de base de la formation aux adultes et nous discuterons de leur motivation. Finalement, nous décrirons des facteurs favorisant la réussite des activités d'apprentissage proposées.

1. Les phases du processus de formation

La formation destinée aux adultes s'inscrit essentiellement dans un processus de développement. Gérer la qualité d'un tel processus implique la considération d'un ensemble de facteurs organisés dans le temps, que ce soit avant, pendant et après la situation d'apprentissage proprement dite. Ainsi, Le Boterf, Barzucchetti et Vincent (1992) distinguent cinq phases dans une démarche de formation : (1) politique, (2) ingénierie, (3) réalisation, (4) mise en oeuvre et (5) évaluation. Les auteurs précisent que chacune d'elles est porteuse d'indicateurs favorisant le succès de la formation en fonction des objectifs fixés.

1.1 La phase politique de la formation

Pour le demandeur de formation, cette phase nécessite d'intégrer des informations provenant de diverses composantes tels les orientations stratégiques, le cadre et les besoins organisationnels, les instances décisionnelles, les priorités du milieu et les ressources disponibles. Les orientations retenues et les décisions subséquentes ont un effet déterminant sur la pertinence d'actualiser la formation et sur les conditions de sa réalisation. Cette phase est donc génératrice de stratégies et de politiques de formation dans la mesure où les demandeurs de la formation et les individus concernés s'entendent autour d'objets communs.

1.2 La phase ingénierie de la formation

Il s'agit de la conception de la formation, de la planification jusqu'à sa mise en application. Les orientations sont alors traduites en objectifs opérationnels et en modalités de réalisation (Meignant 1993) qui présentent les lignes directrices du plan de formation. Ce dernier est précis mais il préserve la latitude nécessaire aux formateurs pour exprimer leur créativité et leur autonomie.

Différents types d'acteurs participent à cette phase : directeur de la formation, directeur des services pédagogiques, responsables des opérations, responsables de programme, coordonnateurs, conseillers et formateurs. Ces derniers doivent s'engager dans la planification du plan de formation (Toupin 1995). De plus, selon les besoins et les situations, les apprenants peuvent participer à cette phase de conception et de planification du processus de formation. D'ailleurs, plusieurs auteurs (Clénet et Gérard 1994; Tardif 1992) reconnaissent l'impact positif de l'implication de l'apprenant dans l'ensemble du processus de formation. L'actualisation des orientations est complexe et déterminante pour la qualité de la phase ingénierie : elle couvre l'ensemble des actes pédagogiques à réaliser et doit être menée en cohérence et en coordination avec les plans, les programmes et les projets dont elle est tributaire.

1.3 La phase réalisation de la formation

Cette phase, la plus connue et trop souvent la seule valorisée, est le moment où les apprenants devraient acquérir les habiletés ou les connaissances recherchées; c'est la formation proprement dite. Les situations pédagogiques peuvent prendre diverses formes (formation en alternance, stage, cours magistraux, exposés, etc.), se dérouler dans des lieux variés (salles de cours, ateliers, visites, etc.) et être échelonnées dans le temps.

La qualité d'un processus de formation est largement tributaire d'une part, de la communication entre les intervenants concernés et d'autre part, de l'intégration des différents aspects touchant de près ou de loin

la formation. En ce sens, Le Boterf et autres (1992) insistent sur la pertinence de l'alternance entre la pratique et la théorie pour favoriser l'acquisition de nouveaux apprentissages. L'alternance stimule la dynamique du processus d'apprentissage : «La théorie oriente l'expérience pratique et celle-ci alimente, interroge la théorie» (p. 45). De plus, elle encourage la participation active de l'apprenant, principal acteur du processus d'apprentissage.

La qualité de cette phase s'évalue entre autres par des indicateurs de succès tels que la réalisation des objectifs de formation, la qualité des relations pédagogiques, les méthodes et scénarios pédagogiques utilisés, le niveau de motivation produit et maintenu. Ces indicateurs seront repris dans un contexte différent sous l'angle d'une approche particulière de la formation des adultes et de leur motivation, une section à venir.

Bref, la phase réalisation de la formation consiste en l'exécution de l'ensemble des actes pédagogiques antérieurement prévus. La situation d'apprentissage mobilise maints facteurs et acteurs qu'il importe de considérer comme des ressources au service de l'apprenant. Ce dernier est pour ainsi dire le coproducteur de la formation. Il importe donc d'apporter une attention particulière à l'éveil, au maintien et au développement de sa motivation tout au long du processus de formation.

1.4 La phase mise en oeuvre des compétences

La gestion de la qualité d'une formation dépasse les activités d'apprentissage comme telles. En effet, ce qui la valide est sans contredit l'atteinte des objectifs opérationnels soit la production de compétences effectives en situation de travail et dans la vie courante (Toupin 1995). Le transfert des connaissances, des habiletés et des comportements professionnels et le maintien de ces acquis sont au coeur de la qualité d'usage des compétences issues d'une formation. Ainsi, le contexte de travail et les acteurs oeuvrant en périphérie des activités de formation sont intégrés à ce processus de formation. Il y a ici partage des responsabilités entre les apprenants eux-mêmes, les formateurs, les responsables de production, les responsables de programme, les conseillers, les superviseurs ou les autres personnes concernées.

1.5 La phase évaluation

Considérant la nature immatérielle d'une formation, cette phase du processus consiste davantage à en apprécier la qualité plutôt qu'à en mesurer systématiquement les retombées (Le Boterf et autres 1992). Des actions inhérentes à cette phase sont intégrées et réalisées dans le processus de formation, particulièrement dans le déroulement des phases de réalisation de la formation et de mise en oeuvre des compétences.

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Une appréciation postformation s'avère aussi indispensable pour repérer les forces et les faiblesses d'une démarche de formation. Bref, la phase évaluation permet de recueillir et de rassembler des résultats de nature différente, de les analyser dans une perspective globale. Elle contribue aussi à dégager des constats en vue d'une plus grande efficacité de l'action de formation.

2. Les principales caractéristiques des adultes

Les adultes qui décident d'entreprendre une formation ont des caractéristiques particulières qui les différencient des enfants et des adolescents. Certaines de ces caractéristiques se retrouvent à la source même des énoncés de base du modèle andragogique de formation proposés par Knowles (1990) que nous exposerons à la prochaine section relative à la formation des adultes. Nous présentons ces caractéristiques des adultes en y associant celles inventoriées par Serre (1995).

L'adulte apprend pour répondre à un ou des besoins. L'existence de ces besoins est une condition préalable avant d'entreprendre une formation avec l'adulte, à défaut de quoi, l'apprentissage est compromis ou même rejeté par manque de motivation. La première caractéristique se résume au besoin d'un emploi. Pour l'adulte qui vient de perdre son emploi par exemple, une de ses premières motivations, parmi les plus importantes, est de pouvoir se qualifier pour un nouveau travail qui lui convienne.

La deuxième est liée au besoin de savoir. Il est capital que non seulement l'adulte ait besoin de la formation qu'il entreprend mais surtout qu'il en ait lui-même conscience. S'il ne croit pas que cette formation soit pertinente pour lui, il n'y consacrera pas les efforts nécessaires et elle sera probablement un échec. Le formateur et les autres intervenants ont une responsabilité importante à cet effet.

La troisième touche le sens des responsabilités de l'apprenant. L'adulte est responsable de ses propres décisions dans sa vie. Il est aussi le principal responsable de ses apprentissages. À défaut de se sentir responsable, l'adulte ne voudra pas fournir les efforts nécessaires à toute formation. Finalement, le rôle de l'expérience est crucial dans un tel processus. L'adulte arrive dans une formation avec une expérience, des connaissances, des valeurs et des façons de faire. Toute formation doit en tenir compte pour les compléter ou les modifier. À cause de ces caractéristiques, les approches d'enseignement aux adultes doivent être différentes.

3. La formation des adultes

Lorsqu'il est question de formation des adultes, il est de plus en plus commun de parler d'andragogie. Dans la littérature, une distinction entre l'andragogie et la pédagogie semble s'établir selon les clientèles visées par ces approches. En effet, pour Legendre (1993), «le mot pédagogie, conformément à son étymologie, s'applique à l'enseignement des enfants, par opposition à andragogie pour les adultes» (p. 961).

Les principales caractéristiques des adultes présentées précédemment font ressortir la distinction entre le modèle andragogique et pédagogique. Ce dernier est un modèle de formation basé sur le contenu à transmettre aux jeunes. Le modèle andragogique exige de se préoccuper d'autres dimensions. D'une part, le formateur doit tenir compte des processus utilisés par les adultes pour acquérir des habiletés, des attitudes et des connaissances. D'autre part, il doit considérer la composante motivationnelle de l'adulte apprenant. Celle-ci fait référence, selon l'approche sociocognitive que nous adoptons (Viau 1994), aux perceptions qu'a l'adulte de la valeur de la formation, de sa capacité de la réussir et du contrôle sur le déroulement de la formation et du lien qui est établi entre la théorie et la pratique.

Quant à l'apprentissage, le rôle du formateur est différent puisqu'il n'est pas le seul à détenir des contenus. Nous retenons de Knowles (1984) cinq éléments du modèle andragogique importants pour favoriser les apprentissages. Le premier est d'impliquer les adultes dans la planification. Les apprenants ont tendance à participer activement aux activités de formation lorsqu'ils ont été consultés sur leur organisation. Le formateur présentera dès le début les compétences que chacun devra acquérir et le type d'activités proposées pour y arriver. Le deuxième élément est d'identifier des besoins de formation. Le formateur aide l'apprenant à reconnaître ses besoins de formation en déterminant les habiletés requises et celles déjà maîtrisées. Une formation n'a de valeur bien souvent, aux yeux de l'apprenant, que si elle répond à un besoin, si elle permet d'améliorer la situation actuelle ou si elle permet de trouver un emploi par exemple. L'apprenant porte un jugement sur l'utilité de la formation pour atteindre les buts visés. De là, l'importance de l'impliquer dans la planification et l'élaboration du plan de formation et de fixer les objectifs du programme de formation en fonction de ses besoins immédiats. Ce dernier élément est le troisième du modèle andragogique. Différents moyens ou méthodes sont utilisés pour permettre aux apprenants de traduire leurs besoins de formation en compétences à acquérir. Cette opération permet d'orienter le formateur sur les moyens pratiques permettant l'acquisition des compétences et d'évaluer les résultats à la fin de la formation.

Le quatrième élément est d'impliquer l'adulte dans l'élaboration du plan de formation. Le formateur et l'apprenant adulte doivent s'assurer continuellement que les activités éducatives propices permettent l'atteinte des objectifs. Si l'enjeu de l'activité de formation reste confus, la perspective future sera entachée et il y aura peu d'engagement de la part de l'individu, ce dernier ne percevant pas très bien ce que la formation lui apportera. Le cinquième est d'impliquer les apprenants dans l'évaluation des apprentissages. L'étape de l'évaluation doit permettre à l'apprenant et au formateur de s'entendre sur les critères, les moyens et la pondération de l'évaluation. Celle-ci doit avoir été discutée avec l'adulte dès le début de l'activité pour que ce dernier puisse y adhérer. La perception de l'adulte de sa capacité de réussir la formation repose en grande partie sur le développement du concept de soi. Avant d'entreprendre une activité de formation avec un haut degré d'incertitude quant à sa réussite, l'apprenant évalue ses capacités à l'accomplir adéquatement. Pour réussir, cette perception doit être positive. Dans ce cas, l'adulte considère qu'il est en bonne partie capable d'autogérer sa formation et il veut être traité de cette façon. Un individu qui perçoit une faible chance de réussite du programme va plutôt mettre en question la valeur de l'activité. Le contrôle sur le déroulement de la formation est la perception du degré de contrôle qu'a l'individu sur le déroulement et les conséquences d'une activité proposée.

Finalement, les adultes doivent savoir à quoi sert, dans la pratique, la théorie enseignée et comment cette théorie est utile dans les situations concrètes. De plus, il faut permettre à l'adulte de faire appel à ses connaissances antérieures, à ses habiletés et à ses compétences déjà acquises pour asseoir les nouvelles connaissances et ainsi progresser. L'alternance entre la théorie et la pratique peut d'ailleurs servir à éveiller, à développer et à maintenir la motivation des apprenants.

4. Les facteurs de réussite de la formation

La connaissance des facteurs de réussite permet à une personne intervenante de soutenir adéquatement un adulte qui entreprend une formation. Ces facteurs sont le délai avant le début de la formation, la durée de la formation et le soutien de l'entourage.

Le délai avant le début de la formation est celui observé entre la décision d'une personne de retourner dans une formation précise et le début effectif de celle-ci. Surtout si le retour est dicté par un événement non désiré (perte d'emploi, accident de travail, maladie personnelle ou autre raison), ce délai doit être le plus court possible. Une fois que l'individu a accepté et bien planifié son retour en formation, il est important

d'actualiser très rapidement ce choix afin de maintenir le niveau de motivation. Il est toutefois hautement préférable que la motivation qui pousse l'adulte à retourner en formation soit plutôt intrinsèque qu'extrinsèque.

Pour ce qui est de la durée de la formation, il est évident qu'elle est fonction des objectifs poursuivis. Par exemple, pour couvrir un contenu comparable, un type de formation orienté vers la théorie est censé être plus court qu'un autre axé sur la pratique, bien que ce dernier soit plus efficace pour des apprenants adultes lorsque son application est possible. Il appert donc que plus la formation s'allonge dans le temps, plus les risques augmentent qu'un apprenant adulte ne termine pas sa formation. En effet, pour un même niveau de motivation au début de la formation, celle plus courte sera moins affectée par les variations du niveau de motivation en cours de formation que celle qui s'allonge.

Enfin, concernant le soutien de l'entourage, on remarque que les modifications du mode de vie provoquées par le retour aux études sont présentées tantôt positivement, tantôt négativement par Guindon (1995). Mais dans bien des cas, les répercussions sont considérées comme négatives autant pour l'apprenant que pour sa famille. Les études nécessitent un investissement considérable en temps et en énergie. À part les formations très brèves, le retour à la formation implique habituellement un partage des responsabilités familiales. Guindon (1995) indique que cette double situation, soit le retour à la formation et le transfert de responsabilités familiales, conduit à des rapports familiaux parfois très tendus. L'élimination de la vie de loisirs et des changements d'ordre physique et psychologique, telle la fatigue inhabituelle et le stress élevé créés par les inquiétudes associées à la réussite des études, accentuent ce climat de tension. Le soutien de la famille immédiate et des amis est donc primordial au succès du retour en formation.

Conclusion

Au terme de cet exposé, il paraît évident que le soutien à la formation mise essentiellement sur une implication active et valorisante de l'individu dans les différentes phases de la formation. L'apprenant adulte qui perçoit sa capacité à réussir veut aussi avoir le sentiment de contrôler différentes composantes de sa formation. Il questionnera, entre autres, son implication concernant les objectifs, les stratégies d'enseignement, l'environnement d'apprentissage et il se préoccupera du respect de son processus personnel d'apprentissage.

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Management and organizational trends: Friend or foe?

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Management and organizational trends: Friend or foe?

By definition, fads come and go. That's their nature. Hula hoops, miniskirts, pet rocks, bell-bottoms, Cabbage Patch dolls, and good old lovable Barney—check your attics or the bottom of your kids' toy boxes and you'll probably find one or more untouched for years. The Lion King has already given way to Pocahontas, who will then lose favour to the next subject of Disney's marketing genius. And so it goes in an endless cycle. Frivolous, fun, harmless, relatively inexpensive, and perhaps a necessary part of a sophisticated consumer-based economic system.

Fads in management? Hardly. American business people are too bright, too well trained in the fundamentals of good management, too concerned about return on investment to spend precious resources on activities that are little more then frivolous passing fancies! Nowhere in either Business 101 or the Harvard Graduate School curriculum is there a course on management fads. It's just not the kind of thing that a self-respecting captain of industry, university professor, or business consultant would give significant thought to, to say nothing of spending more than petty cash for!

American management has successfully resisted fads—unless $8 billion over the past four decades can be considered petty cash. That would be a hard sell to the thousands currently being laid off, to the victims of chapter 11, and to the millions who were suckered into participating in the biggest con games ever to reach the status of lead story. It would seem that the denizens of mahogany row are as susceptible to the pitch of the flimflam man as the people on the street buying Rolex watches from a sidewalk vendor. But there's a big difference.

1. Consumer fads are inexpensive, cost being a relatively fair representation of their temporary value; management fads are outrageously expensive in relationship to their organizational value.
2. The people on the street are spending their own money and are accountable to themselves and their families for the consequences; executives are spending other people's money and are accountable to no one.
3. Consumer fads have little lasting effects; management fads have long-term, and often disastrous, effects.
4. The sellers and buyers of consumer fads are well aware that they are buying and selling items of little significance; the purveyors of management fads are promoting the long-term organizational value of products and services that at best may serve the personal needs of a handful of employees and at worse divert the company and its resources from its business mission, often for years.
5. Consumer fads work; management fads do not even come close.

Perhaps Robert Frost was thinking of this topic when he said, "The human brain is a miraculous organ. It functions continuously from the time we get up in the morning until the time we get to work." How many people are sitting in their offices waiting for the guru's latest pronouncements on customer service, for the 8th habit to be announced, for the semicircular orbital organization chart to appear, and for the mission statement to end all mission statements? Looking for fads to solve problems originally caused by fads to solve problems originally caused by fads is perhaps the most realistic description of a business cycle.

The most prolific generation of fads has come from the application of psychological concepts and theories. From the social science that thrives on intimate doctor-patient relationships comes the "one size fits all" approach to organizational improvement, promoted by people who have never managed a day in their lives and whose concerns were far removed from the realities of management. Most pervasive of all was *sensitivity training* and all of its clones, offshoots, and subcultures.

Popularized by Carl Rogers in the '60s, sensitivity training was commercialized and marketed to organizations as a way for people to get in touch with themselves and to somehow parlay that self-realization into better performance on the job. Enormous sums of money were spent to send employees to retreats and ashrams, often to be abused and sometimes humiliated into becoming sensitive. Many still bear the scars of those encounters. While some may have benefited personally, the question of organizational benefit, the purpose for which resources should be spent, remains unanswered. A sensitive person does not necessarily make a better employee.

The days of sensitivity training ended when organizations began to realize that the damage far outweighed the gains. It was followed by a short-lived but intriguing concept called *human engineering*. It was intriguing because it sounded good—the scientification for psychology—but apparently came too close on the heels of sensitivity training. Vestiges of it are now appearing in *total quality management* (TQM) with its emphasis on empowerment and teamwork.

Quality circles was the next major brainstorm to come on the scene and is close enough to being contemporary that some organizations still have a limited number of "circles" in operation. The original intent was to provide employees with an outlet to raise issues and voice concerns in a unintimidating environment. In many instances, the primary players and expert consultants were the same ones (or their disciples) who led the charge in sensitivity training and human engineering. The result, therefore, tends to be the same: a seemingly

good concept corrupted by attempts of nonbusiness people whose motives were often not in concert with good business practices.

The primary downfall of quality circles was the tendency for the meetings to become bloodletting sessions, to deal with self-serving topics, and to raise issues and problems without the benefit of suggestions and recommendations. Predictably, the circles that were successful were the ones that dealt with operational issues and that offered business solutions or recommendations, not unlike the relatively few successful teams that have emerged from the TQM movement.

The advent of TQM has been a godsend to those who flourish on psycho-social-anthrotheories. The sense of déjà vu is overwhelming; the recycling and renaming of old ideas and concepts has never been so pervasive. Driving decisions to the lowest level has suddenly become a "new concept"; that teams can make better decisions than individuals is a "new revelation"; power to the people is "revolutionary"; satisfying customers is a "new way of doing business"; people are our most important resource is a "real eye-opener." These aren't fads. They are good solid business principles that the fads of the past had driven into the background.

While the basic concepts and principles of TQM are not fads, the methods of implementation touted by the self-proclaimed TQM gurus are inexorably moving it in that direction. The fads in TQM are the implementation processes that are again causing us to lose sight of the fundamentals of managing an organization. It's but another in a long string of examples in which company executives look to the theorists and quasi-experts to determine the course of their business rather than referring to the fundamentals that have been the backbone of American business since its inception. Concepts and practices that are rooted in success and have staying power should not be dismissed simply because someone has written a book or advanced a new theory. Consider what is happening in the implementation of TQM.

1. Management by committee—the executive council, the management councils, the quality councils, the advisory committees, teams—meshed together in interlocking circles to implement and manage TQM and, by so doing, creating a bureaucracy that confuses accountability and responsibility in the day-by-day operating environment.

2. Assigned to a staff group—quality assurance, human resources, employee involvement, TQM project office—all organizational entities that by definition should have no authority in the operating

organization but are given the implied authority to make everyone toe the line in TQM.

3. By the numbers, 50% of the employees must be on teams, everyone is to receive five days of training, five years for successful implementation. Assures measurability that is meaningless and wasteful but provides job security for those involved.

4. Five heads are better than one—natural work groups, self-managed teams, self-directed teams, autonomous work groups, high performance work teams—the sure sign of a fad in the making, terminology that nobody understands and operating principles that emphasize process, camaraderie, Myers-Briggs, facilitated consensus, and perhaps a word or two now and then about getting something accomplished. ("Remember, you've got five years.")

5. Down with the hierarchy—circular organization chart, upside-down structure, wheels within wheels. "Hierarchies are dinosaurs—lumbering, unable to adapt to the pace of change, paralysed by complexity, and doomed to die," says Jack Gordon, who is confusing hierarchies with bureaucracies but has the good sense to include in his article a quote by Gerry Kraines, CEO of Levinson Institute: "The problem is not with hierarchy, but with bad hierarchy."[1]

Will TQM go the way of sensitivity training and quality circles? Undoubtedly, for those organizations that followed the advice of the typical TQM consultants who advocated implementation as described above. In fact, it's already happening, to the extent that in some organizations it's a felony to even mention the acronym. Fortunately, a significant number of companies and their executives understood the business value of TQM and proceeded to implement it as a business entity rather than a sociological experiment. For those companies, the concepts and practices of TQM will stay even though the acronym may go.

While examples are everywhere, perhaps the one that is most illustrative of the destructive nature of the brain manipulators is the one of a CEO of a relatively large real-estate financing company. As a reward for their performance during a particularly good year, he decided to give each employee $10 as a Christmas bonus. In the minds of the employees, $10 was hardly representative of their efforts. They didn't know whether to thank him or look for another job. The following year, the CEO got turned on with the latest version of "EST" and spent over $300,000 sending all of his employees through the program. Two years later the company went out of business.

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How fads get into the organization

It is the nature of business fads that their true identity does not reveal itself in the minds of the buyer until the money has been wasted. A pet rock is a pet rock. Nobody—neither the buyer nor the seller—is suffering under the illusions that it is going to be a lifelong companion. In business, however, fads are pitched as the long-term solutions to the ills of the organization and are bought with attitudes ranging from "we've got to do something" to "as long as it doesn't hurt" to "this is just what we need."

That companies will spend millions on a lark, often with a history of being ripped off in the same way, is a source of constant amazement. To spend $500,000 on a new piece of equipment requires months of study, testing, negotiations, and ROI analysis. To spend the same amount to have all managers go trekking through the forest in elaborate survival rituals takes an hour with a fast-talking consultant and about 15 minutes of browbeating in an executive council meeting. As any self-respecting consultant or salesperson knows, the way to lucrative contracts is through the highest possible decision-maker whose ability to bring others in line—perhaps kicking and screaming—is legendary.

It is tempting to make light of this topic. Some of the incredible examples would be hilarious if it were not for the severity of their organizational consequences, particularly in today's downsizing environment. Fads are often brought into organizations under the pressures of survival—to adapt to change, to increase market share, to respond to compliance regulations, to be more competitive. Who has the solutions to these problems? The author of the latest business best-seller, the psychologist who applies his or her trade to the business world, the consultant who is the disciple of another consultant, the professor who has "done a study," and anyone else who has access, and the evangelical fervour of a television minister. The one thing they have in common is a lack of real world experience—they haven't been there and done that. It is a sad commentary on contemporary management that most organizations feel the need to seek solutions outside the organization. The expertise on both the problems and the solutions exists inside the organizations with those who are there and doing it.

Why do companies seek solutions from the outside? There are several reasons.

1. Most CEO's are not products of their operating environment, have not come up through the ranks, and often are elevated to their position because of expertise in financial or other nonoperational disciplines. Their only real concern with operational or management issues is

the effect on the bottom line. Relations with operating people, even at the executive level, are often strained and distant, an uneasy truce at best. Respect for organizational and managerial intellect is not bestowed on the "doers" in the organization—the manufacturing managers, the engineers, the people who run the place day-by-day. They are considered to be in the here-and-now and have little ability to look beyond getting today's work out.

Being a product of a staff function, like finance, CEO's tend to seek advice from like kinds—other people in staff functions. Marketing, human resources, quality assurance, long-range planning, information systems—any or all are more likely the sources of expertise tapped by the CEO to provide solutions to problems with which they have little firsthand experience. The net result tends to be a pooling of operational ignorance, lacking the capacity to distinguish what is organizationally sound and what is pure rubbish. What better breeding ground for the latest in expensive snake oil.

2. Perhaps the most significant and destructive trend in American business over the past several decades has been the growth of staff and service groups, both in number and power. It is ironic that this growth has been in some measure directly related to the fads that have come and gone during that time span. It is predictable that staff will increase to meet the demands of new programs but are not eliminated when the programs are dismantled. The result is a large number of "staff specialists" in organizations who are often one-dimensional in their expertise, and that dimension is often far removed from the operational end of the business. It is not surprising that they tend to gravitate to the newest and latest with evangelical zeal. Having the ear of top management makes the sales job—or con job—even easier.

Hayes, Wheelright, and Clark in their book *Dynamic Manufacturing* have identified the misguided role of staff functions very well. They state, "Large staff, composed of ambitious and overprotective people determined to justify their existence, make work and make trouble. They cut off the executive from the line organization and the line organization from the executive." They go on to say, "A strong central staff will find something to do and will eventually decide that what it wants to do is sufficiently important that it justifies interfering with what somebody else wants to do."[2]

There is a flip side to the coin. For those who take, there must be someone who gives. Staff groups often derive their power and influence because of the abdication of accountability by line management. A

classic case in point is the current trend—fad?—toward customer service and the process by which it's implemented. A company recently spent over $1/2 million on a "smile on the phone" campaign because an upper level manager during a business trip called his office twice—once he was cut off, the other time transferred to the wrong person. He returned from the trip, stormed into the training manager's office with the infamous raised fist and told the training manager to "fix the phone problem." The result was a two-day training program for all employees, a telephone consultant placed on retainer, a telephone monitoring system, an extensive customer survey, and "telephone answering" added as an item on performance appraisals—all based on recom-mendations from a customer service team composed of members of the training department, quality assurance, human resources, and marketing. Notice the absence of any representation by operating departments—the ones who deal with the customers on the phone.

What's wrong with this picture? The telephone "problem"—if indeed one even existed—belongs to the operating organization, not to a training department. The manager should not have given it to them, nor should they have taken it. If, through analysis by the line organization, a telephone problem does exist, the line organization is accountable for solving it. Staff groups can then be called in to provide whatever specialized expertise is needed to assist in solving the problem. This example illustrates the pernicious spread of staff influence and power, and the persistent abdication of accountability of line management. Over time, safety departments have become accountable for reducing accidents, quality assurance for improving quality, human resources for everything from performance appraisals to diversity to equal opportunity. And line management has allowed them to do it. What ever happened to the basic management concept that line management is accountable for everything that happens under its jurisdiction and that staff groups are advisory only?

Allowing staff groups to usurp authority—or giving it directly to them—is the kiss of death for any major initiative undertaken by any organization. It's a sure way to get the latest fad into the organization and to be sure that it doesn't work. There might be some comfort in that if it didn't cause so much damage to the organization in the process.

Resisting the temptation

Resisting the latest and greatest isn't easy, particularly when survival is at stake or other pressures seem to indicate the need to do something. With the basics of sound management in mind, we offer the following suggestions.

1. Strengthen your organizational structure and decision-making process. The former will certainly go a long way in accomplishing the latter. Organizational hierarchies are here to stay and they should be. The best way to strengthen the hierarchy is to more clearly define the roles of management and supervision at each level and hold each level fully accountable for carrying out those roles. This concept certainly includes the current principle of empowerment, which we have always called delegation, participative management, and "driving decisions to the lowest possible level"—Business 101. It is critical, however, that all people are prepared to be empowered and that empowerment extend only to the limits of responsibility at each organizational level. Empowerment of employees, for example, should be clearly defined and limited; empowerment of managers should not directly overlap, or usurp, that of employees.

2. Redefine the role of all staff groups. While their expertise in specialized areas may be invaluable, they should be reminded that they exist at the behest, and for the benefit, of the operating organization. Their value lies in their ability to bring specialized knowledge to bear on operating problems and programs—to advise and persuade, not proselytize—for the good of the organization.

3. Avoid all "feel good" programs. The marketplace is full of them. A "feel good" program is one in which the gap between learning and job application is about as wide as the Grand Canyon. Often these programs are entertaining, interesting, and enjoyable, and if evaluated by how much people liked them would appear to be well worth the money. The payoff, however, should always be measured in improved job performance since that's the only return on the investment that matters. From "awareness" programs in TQM to trust-building in wilderness survival exercises, the quantum leap into the real world of business renders these types of programs virtually worthless.

4. Consider giving lower-level management and employees the accountability for evaluating and recommending proposed new initiatives. The decision may still rest with upper management because of dollar amounts involved and the potential scope of the initiative. However, it is well established that the further people are organizationally from the problem or the site of implementation, the more likely their decisions are to be wrong. Operating people tend to be more realistic and honest in their evaluations about will work and what won't. Most importantly, they know fluff when they see it and they're not bashful about saying so.

Look for the telltale signs of a fad-in-the-making. Try this checklist. One check mark should scuttle the project.

- The program contains major activities and "learning experiences" that are far removed from the realities of the work environment.
- The program is the brainchild of a single guru, academic, or author with no recognized relationship to establish business principles or practices.[3]
- The trappings of the program include extensive paperwork, significant administrative support, no escape clause in contracts with providers, high up-front retainers, or significant front-end costs on implementation.
- The program requires participants to express views on sensitive issues that are personal, political, spiritual, or religious.[3]
- The program is for CYA or certification purposes only, with no effort to extract performance value from the content.
- The vendors will not provide sample materials, unbiased references, pilot programs, or definitive costs.
- The vendor explains in great detail what the participants will learn, who they will become, how their lives will be forever enhanced, and the contributions they will make to the world at large but sluffs off potential performance improvements with "better people make better employees" or other such babble.
- The vendor guarantees performance results, productivity gains, or quality improvements.

It appears that the rise and fall of fads is inevitable. Obviously, that's more of a commentary on the fad-buyers than on the fad-sellers. Gullibility has few limits in terms of experience, intellect, budget, size of organization, or management level. The best rule we can provide to remove susceptibility to the scams out there is to evaluate every new initiative as you would a new piece of hardware or equipment. What will we get for our investment—in performance terms—and how will we know when we've got it? If the payoff is there—in performance terms—it's not a fad. It's just good business.

Endnotes

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Men and work

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Men and work

The suicide rate for unemployed men in North America is double the rate of those that are employed. The suicide rates for women do not vary with their employment status. This alarming statistic should be a warning that something is seriously wrong and needs our attention. The lack of books and resources to help men in their growth has been painfully obvious for some time now. Gail Sheehy, in her popular new book *New Passages*, writes on how well women are coping with and adjusting to change in mid-life and beyond. However, she points out that men are having a difficult time adjusting to change because so much of their identity is tied to their work. In *Revolution From Within*, Gloria Steinem notes that while there are many books available for women to help them grow, there are few for men. Many of these books on women focus upon the woman who is trying to play the double work and home role, yet there are few books available for men whose work is very destructive to them because they have no identity outside of it.

Even though men's work often is not the realization of their dreams, there are strong societal expectations that keep them shackled to their jobs. A 64-year-old recognizing the truth of his situation explained his predicament in the following way: "I'm terrified of retirement. The problem is simple. If I'm not working, who am I? It'll be as if I've ceased to exist." A 49-year old businessman summed up his situation like this: "If I don't succeed now, I'll be a nobody when I'm dead." A middle-management executive shared the following feelings: "Relax? How can I? There's always some other guy jockeying for my place. If I lose my spot, I'm a nobody. You can't be a man and go backwards. Or even sideways. It's always up, up, up. Otherwise, how can you live with yourself?"

Although many women now work outside of the home and live under the same strains and stresses in the workplace, there is one vital difference between the sexes when it comes to the meaning that they give to work. Women normally find a great deal of their identity in their children, families, and relationships with others and are seldom dependant for their entire identity upon their work. For many men, however, their entire identity and sense of self-worth is tied to their work. This leaves them in a very vulnerable position when they lose their work. Even though for many men their work may be a burden and give them little fulfilment, losing that work puts them in a crisis. The results of the effects of unemployment on males has been well studied and documented. In Newfoundland, the Canadian Mental Health Association did a study of the effects of unemployment since the virtual shutdown of the fishing industry there. They found that where

unemployment rates have skyrocketed, so have the rates of unhappiness, alcohol abuse, and family violence. This has, of course, coincided with men being at home instead of out fishing. A much larger study was conducted by the Johns Hopkins School of Public Health and presented to the U.S. Congressional Committee. Some of the highlights of the report are as follows:

- The suicide rate for prime-age males is directly related to the unemployment rate.
- Increases in the death rate of one group of prime-age males (45–64) from stroke and heart disease peaks at just over a year after the unemployment rate increases.
- Mental health and prison admissions increase when the unemployment rate increases.
- Job loss is closely tied to depression, anxiety, aggression, insomnia, loss of self-esteem, and marital problems. Partners of unemployed workers showed mental-health symptoms later than their unemployed spouses who also had mental-health problems.

While all men who find themselves involuntarily unemployed are vulnerable, blue-collar workers are perhaps the most vulnerable. Generally more traditional in their adherence to gender roles than their professional counterparts, they are less likely to be aware of the few resources available and less likely to seek help. Often the skills they have learned were learned on the job and are not easily transferrable to other areas. Our society's present changeover from an industrial age to an information age has left thousands of blue-collar workers expendable and destined to the scrap heap of history.

During the '70s there was a lot of talk of gender roles in society. Most of the discussion was about women's roles and how these roles limited women's ability to enter into different careers. In 1975, Samuel Osipow published a text devoted specifically to women's career development. Very little attention has been paid to the specific needs of men in career decision-making. Men's roles have been largely neglected in the research. The following are suggestions for career-development practitioners working with men:

- Have a solid background in adult development theory.
- Be aware of your own gender-role attitudes and biases.
- Have knowledge of,—and be able to articulate—issues and themes in men's lives.
- Be aware of your own gender-role attitudes and biases.
- Be aware of power and control issues that may arise when dealing with men, and have a plan for dealing with these issues.
- Be able to describe the results of certain male gender-role issues. Many men will be unaware of their feelings and emotions surrounding

these issues, and will need help to enable them to clarify and delve deeper into these areas. The counsellor could develop specific techniques to be able to assist in this process.

- Be able to help men in assessing the effects of parents, school, and societal expectations on their career choices.
- Research has shown that most men tend to be cognitive rather than insightful. For them, the perceived value of counselling will be increased if decision making is part of the process. Counsellors should be aware of this, and bring decision making into the counselling session.
- Counsellors will need to use their creativity in helping males come up with and explore alternatives.

At present, the career counsellor's main focus is to get the man back into the workforce. That role needs to expand to helping men cope with being unemployed. When men have increased their ability to cope, they will be able to look for work from a position of strength, rather than from a sense of desperation. While for many men their work is not a fulfilment of their dreams, it nevertheless provides them with three essential things: structure, purpose, and community. Unless these can be compensated for while the man is unemployed, he will be in a very vulnerable place. The longer he is unemployed and the less of any of these three essentials he has outside of the workplace, the greater his risk will be.

Structure

At first, the newfound freedom of not having a job may feel very good. There is time to relax, have a coffee, read the paper, and do at leisure all the things that the man previously had no time for. Soon, however, having all that spare time becomes a burden to the man whose worth has been programmed to be based on doing things. Signs that structure has broken down for a man appear in the form of letting his appearance go, not shaving, not changing or washing his clothes, and sleeping in till all hours of the day. Volunteer work, especially work that requires regular commitment at certain times, can help prevent loss of structure for a man. It can also help in giving him a sense of purpose and a connection to the community.

Purpose

It is crucial for a man to have a purpose in order to survive any lengthy period of unemployment. Studies have shown that seven out of ten people who retire without a purpose in life die within two years after retirement. At the same time, we all know people who have the time of their life after retirement. Purpose in life is essential, whether the man is employed or not. The following statements that a man can complete may help him define his purpose.

- A person with purpose I admire is...
- Looking back upon my life, I would like to have accomplished the following...
- I would get great satisfaction if I were able to...
- My life would be complete if I could accomplish the following...

While helping men define their higher purpose, it is equally important to define small achievable day-to-day tasks to help them gain a sense of achievement and self-worth. Some ideas are:

- Shop for and prepare a nutritious meal.
- Do an errand for a neighbour or friend who is elderly, ill, or handicapped.
- Learn or gain knowledge in an area of interest to you.
- Set a goal to improve your physical health.
- Help out in a cause you have some personal attachment to.

Community

Many people, when asked if they miss their work, answer that they do not miss the work but miss the people they worked with. Men, in particular, since they often have less developed support networks, tend to have all of their eggs in one basket. Once the job is gone, so is their support network. Men need to create their own community outside of work. Getting involved in community organizations, church, political organizations, and men's support groups are ways of creating a community. This also helps in forming networks that will help in the job search. Men should be strongly encouraged to maintain support networks after they have found work. This should be a lifetime goal and commitment. These are part of his real safety net, and could be a matter of life and death.

Motivation et orientation : un but significatif

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Introduction

Notre questionnement de départ portait sur l'identification des caractéristiques vocationnelles des jeunes adultes de 16–30 ans sans formation professionnelle afin de dégager leurs besoins au plan éducatif en matière d'orientation et de mieux les préparer à intégrer le marché du travail. Cette vaste recherche s'inscrit dans le prolongement des travaux du Centre de recherche sur l'éducation et le travail (CRET) menés en collaboration avec divers partenaires du monde de l'éducation et du travail. (Dupont et Bourassa 1994; Gingras et Dupont 1992; Gingras, Dupont, Marceau et Favreau 1994; Marceau, Gingras et Boulanger 1995)

La présente étude concerne la motivation professionnelle d'élèves en difficulté d'adaptation et d'apprentissage inscrits au programme des cheminements particuliers de formation (CPF) en vue de l'insertion sociale et professionnelle (ISP). Après avoir exposé les problèmes de ces jeunes en matière de formation et d'emploi, nous décrirons nos appuis théoriques ainsi que l'instrument de mesure retenu dans le but d'analyser leurs principales sources de motivation ou de démotivation professionnelle. Puis, nous mentionnerons quelques conditions susceptibles de motiver davantage le comportement de ces élèves au regard de leur carrière.

Problématique

Actuellement, le terme «changement» est le mot clé le plus souvent utilisé lorsqu'il est question du marché du travail. La conjoncture sociale et économique, les progrès technologiques et la mondialisation des marchés sont des exemples des transformations qui ont accentué les problèmes d'insertion professionnelle des jeunes de faible niveau de qualification (sans diplôme de formation secondaire générale ou professionnelle). Des données de Statistique Canada (1995) révèlent un taux de chômage particulièrement élevé de 16,5 % chez les jeunes de 15 à 24 ans. Par ailleurs, le nombre d'échecs et d'abandons scolaires qui sévit présentement au Québec est vraiment alarmant, les proportions variant de 30 % à 50 % au secondaire selon les sources de renseignements consultées et les méthodes utilisées pour identifier ce phénomène (OPCCOQ 1995). De plus, depuis l'implantation du programme des cheminements particuliers de formation pour les élèves en difficulté d'adaptation et d'apprentissage, le nombre des effectifs n'a cessé de croître : 13 721 élèves profitaient de cette formation en 1987–1988; ce chiffre est passé à 17 281 élèves en 1988–1989 et il se situe maintenant à 22 015 jeunes selon une source officielle du ministère.

Ce programme est de type temporaire quand il s'agit d'une mesure transitoire au début du secondaire axée principalement sur le rattrapage dans les matières de base afin d'intégrer l'élève dans la classe régulière en vue de l'obtention d'un diplôme d'études secondaires ou professionnelles. Il est qualifié de continu lorsque le retard scolaire de l'élève est trop important (plus de deux ans en langue maternelle et en mathématiques) pour le réintégrer dans la classe ordinaire. Au 1er cycle, la formation vise l'atteinte des objectifs de formation mais elle peut aussi contribuer à consolider les acquis du primaire. Au 2e cycle, elle est conçue pour permettre l'insertion sociale et professionnelle. Elle comprend alors un bloc de formation générale et un bloc de formation axée sur l'insertion professionnelle où les objectifs sont : sensibiliser les jeunes aux exigences du monde du travail, leur faire développer de bonnes habitudes de travail, leur faire acquérir les connaissances requises pour aborder de façon autonome le marché de l'emploi et la vie adulte, et leur faire maîtriser les habiletés les rendant aptes à effectuer des fonctions de travail simples (habituellement au nombre de trois). Au terme de cette formation, les élèves obtiennent une «attestation de capacités» et une «évaluation du stagiaire» constituant un profil détaillé et un résumé de leur potentiel professionnel à offrir à un employeur.

Il est ardu de catégoriser ces jeunes puisque les difficultés ou les déficiences varient en intensité, qu'il ne s'agit pas d'un groupe homogène et que chaque institution ou commission scolaire doit composer avec les structures académiques, le nombre d'inscriptions et les ressources disponibles. Toutefois, ce sont souvent des élèves qui éprouvent des troubles d'apprentissage (TGA : troubles graves d'apprentissage; DGA : difficultés graves d'apprentissage; TLA : troubles légers d'apprentissage), des élèves qui démontrent des troubles de comportements (MSA : mésadaptés socio-affectifs; TCC : troubles de comportements en classe), et des élèves qui ont des troubles de déficience (DML : déficience mentale légère; DIL : déficience intellectuelle lente). En 1987, le ministère de l'Éducation du Québec a aussi relevé certaines de leurs caractéristiques. Entre autres, il note que l'image négative développée au fil des ans les porte à se replier sur eux-mêmes ou à s'opposer ouvertement aux structures de l'école, voire même à la société en entier. Il rapporte également certaines phases couramment utilisées à leur sujet dont : «On a tout essayé...», «Ils sont incapables d'apprendre...» (MEQ 1987: 3, 10). Pourtant, dans une enquête récente (MEQ 1995), 93 % des enseignantes et enseignants ou responsables des CPF interrogés admettent paradoxalement et spontanément que ces élèves s'intéressent davantage aux activités concrètes, qu'ils apprécient grandement les activités de type ateliers et les stages en entreprises.

Bien que des difficultés d'ordre scolaire, personnel ou social peuvent contribuer à expliquer une certaine partie des problèmes des jeunes sans diplôme en matière d'éducation et de travail, nous croyons que ces problèmes proviennent aussi de lacunes au niveau de leur orientation scolaire et professionnelle ainsi que d'un manque de motivation au regard de leur carrière.

Écrits scientifiques

Quoique peu nombreuses, les recherches conduites sur le développement de carrière des jeunes en difficulté indiquent qu'ils sont moins matures au plan de la carrière comparativement à leurs pairs et qu'ils ont habituellement une faible estime d'eux-mêmes (Biller 1985; Conseil supérieur de l'éducation 1990). Par exemple, ils éprouvent de la difficulté à acquérir de l'information et leurs connaissances du monde du travail sont limitées et souvent incorrectes. De plus, ils n'arrivent pas à se voir comme futurs travailleurs ou ils surestiment leurs possibilités et tentent de faire des choix professionnels qui nécessitent des qualifications qu'ils ne possèdent pas. Pour Rosenthal (1989), leur difficulté d'assimilation de l'information et le peu d'engagement dans des activités d'exploration en vue de la carrière peuvent expliquer leur manque de maturité vocationnelle.

Allard et Ouellette (1994) ont démontré que les jeunes à risque ne sont pas tellement avancés au plan du développement de leur identité professionnelle et qu'ils font preuve d'un manque de réalisme en rapport avec leurs possibilités d'emploi. Selon Fournier (1994), les jeunes en difficulté d'insertion professionnelle affichent des croyances «qui laissent très peu de place à l'expression de ce qu'ils sont, de leurs qualités, de leurs intérêts (...) dans leur démarche d'insertion socio-professionnelle (...) Il semble que ce qu'ils sont comme individus soit laissé de côté ou jugé comme de peu d'utilité pour leur intégration au marché du travail» (p. 10). Aussi, ils n'apparaissent même pas en mesure d'évaluer l'apport d'une plus grande connaissance de soi dans leur cheminement professionnel. Il est donc facile de comprendre que des jeunes qui ne croient plus en eux soient démotivés au regard de leur avenir.

Mais que faut-il entendre au juste par cette dernière expression? D'après le sens commun, la motivation est ce qui pousse quelqu'un à agir. D'un point de vue plus psychologique, il s'agit «d'un ensemble de forces, mobiles ou préférences qui déterminent le comportement» (Laflamme, Goyette et Mathieu 1996, p. 68) ou, comme le précisent Vallerand et Thill (1993), d'un «construit hypothétique utilisé afin de décrire les forces internes et/ou externes produisant le déclenchement, la direction, l'intensité et la persistance d'un comportement» (p. 18). Pour Viau

(1994), «la motivation en contexte scolaire est un état dynamique qui a ses origines dans les perceptions qu'un élève a de lui-même et de son environnement et qui l'incite à choisir une activité, à s'y engager et à persévérer dans son accomplissement afin d'atteindre un but» (p. 7). Ainsi, c'est «à partir de la perception que l'individu a de l'environnement et de lui-même qu'il établira ses besoins, se fixera des buts professionnels, déterminera son projet d'action pour atteindre ces buts, puis prendra les moyens nécessaires pour les réaliser» (St-Louis et Vigneault 1983, p. 5).

Des liens très étroits unissent donc les concepts de motivation et d'orientation. En ce sens, une personne qui manque de motivation sera incapable de satisfaire ses besoins comme ceux de travailler, de se connaître, d'explorer son environnement et d'avoir des objectifs futurs. Autrement dit, comment est-il possible d'être motivé au regard de sa carrière si on ne croit pas en la valeur du travail, si on manque de confiance en soi et en l'avenir et si on demeure passif face à son orientation? En outre, nous pouvons aisément constater le rôle primordial que jouent les perceptions dans un tel contexte. C'est à partir de l'ensemble de ces informations que nous avons vérifié la motivation professionnelle d'un groupe d'élèves inscrits au programme des cheminements particuliers de formation en vue de l'insertion professionnelle.

Méthodologie

L'instrument de mesure retenu pour connaître leurs sources de motivation ou de démotivation professionnelle s'intitule Questionnaire de motivation (Dupont et Gingras 1995). Cet outil, qui a fait l'objet d'un processus de validation auprès de diverses clientèles du secondaire (élèves finissants, adultes en formation générale ou professionnelle, élèves des programmes réguliers et Sport-études), a aussi été préexpérimenté (individuellement et en groupe) auprès d'élèves qui éprouvent des difficultés d'adaptation et d'apprentissage. Toutes les données recueillies suite à ces multiples expérimentations nous assurent de sa valeur d'utilisation.

Ses 44 énoncés se répartissent en quatre dimensions : signification du travail (l'importance qu'un individu accorde au travail dans sa vie et les diverses raisons qui le motivent à travailler), concept de soi professionnel (l'image qu'une personne a d'elle-même, c'est-à-dire ses intérêts, ses aptitudes, ses compétences, ses qualités au regard des possibilités professionnelles et d'une carrière future), préparation à la carrière (les démarches et les activités de planification et d'exploration réalisées, les divers facteurs considérés pour prendre des décisions d'orientation et la connaissance des professions et du monde du travail),

aspirations professionnelles (la précision du projet professionnel de la personne, sa satisfaction générale à l'endroit de ce projet et l'assurance qu'elle pourra le réaliser). L'administration prend environ 15 minutes et le mode de correction se fait de façon manuelle en additionnant le nombre de réponses fournies (vrai, faux, ?) à chaque énoncé et compte tenu des dimensions spécifiées. Notre échantillon de 55 élèves se compose comme suit : garçons = 71 %, filles = 29 %, TGA = 55 %, TCC = 45 %.

Résultats

L'analyse de leurs réponses nous a permis d'identifier un ensemble de facteurs explicatifs de la motivation ou de la démotivation au regard de leur carrière. Ainsi, plus les perceptions identifiées au tableau 1 à la page 211 sont positives (au dessus de la moyenne calculée), plus les élèves sont susceptibles d'être motivés par rapport à leur vie de travail et vice versa.

Signification du travail

Les principales sources de motivation professionnelle concernent la place occupée par le travail, certaines retombées du travail (reconnaissance et satisfaction professionnelles) et diverses raisons de travailler (développement personnel, utilisation des talents et des goûts, désir d'acquérir le mode de vie souhaité, possibilité d'établir des relations avec les autres et de gérer son temps). En revanche, les facteurs démotivants correspondent à l'importance et à la conception utilitaire du travail, au fait de travailler pour gagner de l'argent ou aider les autres et au rôle du travail dans la société. Même si une bonne partie des élèves en difficulté accorde une certaine signification au travail, ils devraient voir davantage son importance et son utilité au sein de la société. Ils pourraient également mieux reconnaître les bénéfices qu'ils peuvent retirer de cette activité au point de vue monétaire et altruiste.

Concept de soi professionnel

Les éléments essentiels de motivation professionnelle sont surtout les qualités personnelles, la capacité de prendre des décisions et la confiance en soi. Toutefois, les énoncés qui réfèrent aux capacités personnelles, aux intérêts professionnels, à la perspective future et à la connaissance de soi semblent moins motivants. Bien que ces élèves disent posséder une conception d'eux-mêmes assez positive à quelques points de vue, il serait tout de même opportun d'améliorer cette

perception, sinon de la rendre plus réaliste en leur faisant découvrir leurs aptitudes et leurs intérêts professionnels, en les amenant à se projeter dans l'avenir et à découvrir qui ils sont réellement. Probablement que le fait d'avoir une meilleure connaissance d'eux-mêmes pourrait mieux les motiver à leur vie de travail.

Préparation à la carrière

Les sources majeures de motivation professionnelle sont les plans de carrière effectués, l'expérience acquise en milieu de travail, diverses connaissances (barrières professionnelles, profession préférée et possibilités d'emploi) et certaines démarches effectuées (recherche d'information professionnelle, prise en compte des goûts et des capacités). Les éléments démotivants sont l'utilité des activités scolaires pour le choix professionnel, le rôle de la famille lors de ce processus, différentes connaissances (monde du travail, formation requise pour le projet professionnel, caractéristiques des professions) et diverses démarches d'exploration (considérer les besoins futurs du marché du travail, consulter des documents d'information et recourir à l'aide de diverses personnes pour l'orientation). Même si plusieurs élèves ont effectué quelques préparatifs en vue de leur carrière, ne seraient-ils pas davantage motivés s'ils pouvaient mieux voir la pertinence de leurs apprentissages scolaires par rapport à leur choix professionnel et l'apport de leurs parents dans ce domaine? Aussi, ne devraient-ils pas être sensibilisés à leur manque de connaissance des professions et du monde du travail ainsi qu'à leurs lacunes concernant leurs démarches d'orientation? Ils auraient peut-être ainsi la volonté de faire les efforts nécessaires pour mieux se préparer à leur vie de travail.

Aspirations professionnelles

Les facteurs motivants sont l'intérêt pour le projet professionnel, l'espérance de réussir professionnellement et la confiance d'accéder au monde du travail. Les sources de démotivation professionnelle concernent le manque de clarté du cheminement de carrière, des buts et des projets professionnels, le manque de confiance en leurs chances de succès professionnel et en la capacité de parvenir à la profession rêvée ainsi que l'incertitude d'atteindre leurs buts professionnels. Si ces jeunes reconnaissent certains éléments liés à leurs aspirations professionnelles comme motivants, ne faudrait-il pas renforcer encore plus d'autres aspects qui se rapportent notamment à la confiance, à la certitude et à la clarté de leur projet d'orientation?

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Conclusion

La motivation joue un rôle de premier plan dans le cheminement d'orientation des individus, y compris les élèves qui éprouvent des difficultés d'adaptation et d'apprentissage, mais encore faut-il trouver des stratégies efficaces et développer des moyens appropriés qui les amènent à l'action. Voici quelques idées provenant de nos résultats ou d'autres auteurs (Super 1979; Viau 1994) : informer ces jeunes par rapport aux professions et au marché du travail; les exposer à des situations de travail multiples et variées; relier ces diverses situations à leur vie de tous les jours en s'inspirant d'exemples concrets; illustrer les relations entre les concepts enseignés et leur utilité dans le monde du travail; améliorer leur estime d'eux-mêmes sinon la rendre davantage réaliste; développer leur confiance en eux-mêmes et leurs capacités de réussir; les amener à prendre connaissance de ce qu'ils désirent et de ce qu'ils peuvent faire tout en tenant compte de la réalité; se préoccuper de leurs intérêts professionnels; faire des comparaisons avec des domaines qui leur sont familiers; développer de bonnes habitudes de travail tout en leur apprenant à faire des choix et axer davantage l'intervention sur les conditions qui motivent le comportement.

En bref, dans l'ensemble des mesures mises de l'avant, il est impératif de considérer la notion de «besoin» qui pousse souvent à l'action. Aussi, nous croyons fermement qu'il faut cultiver la motivation professionnelle de ces élèves en vue de mieux les préparer à leur vie de travail puisque sans elle, rien ne peut être déclenché, entrepris, fait et réalisé.

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Tableau 1 Résultats (%) obtenus au Questionnaire de motivation professionnelle

SIGNIFICATION DU TRAVAIL	VRAI	FAUX	?
1. Le travail occupe une place de premier plan dans ma vie.	85,5	5,5	9,0
2. Sans travail, j'aurais l'impression de gaspiller ma vie.	65,5	27,2	7,3
3. Il est important pour moi d'être reconnu(e) comme une personne travaillante.	96,4	1,8	1,8
4. Le travail est une source de satisfaction personnelle.	80,0	10,9	9,1
5. Le travail me donne de l'indépendance financière.	56,4	34,6	9,0
6. Pour moi, le travail sert d'abord à gagner de l'argent.	65,5	30,9	3,6
7. Selon moi, le travail constitue une source de développement personnel.	80,0	7,3	12,7
8. Le travail me permet d'aider les autres.	61,8	29,1	9,1
9. Par le travail, je peux utiliser mes talents et mes goûts.	85,4	7,3	7,3
10. D'après moi, le travail est indispensable à la société.	63,6	20,0	16,4
11. Le travail me permet d'avoir le mode de vie souhaité.	76,4	20,0	3,6
12. Le travail me permet d'établir des relations avec les autres.	89,1	3,6	7,3
13. Le travail est une façon d'occuper mon temps.	80,0	12,7	7,3
Pourcentage moyen	**75,8**	**16,2**	**8,0**

CONNAISSANCE DE SOI	VRAI	FAUX	?
14. Je possède les qualités personnelles pour réussir au plan professionnel.	76,4	7,3	16,3
15. Je suis capable de prendre des décisions quant à mon avenir professionnel.	83,6	3,6	12,8
16. Je compte sur moi-même pour parvenir à me trouver un emploi.	92,7	3,6	3,7
17. J'ai les capacités suffisantes pour réussir dans ma carrière.	69,0	14,5	16,5
18. Grâce à mes divers intérêts, je peux réussir dans plusieurs professions.	60,0	21,8	18,2
19. Je peux m'imaginer dans une profession future.	58,2	18,2	23,6
20. Je me connais assez pour choisir mon orientation professionnelle.	63,6	16,4	20,0
Pourcentage moyen	**71,9**	**12,2**	**15,9**

PRÉPARATION À LA CARRIÈRE	VRAI	FAUX	?
21. Je sais comment m'y prendre pour réaliser mes objectifs professionnels.	70,9	9,1	20,0
22. Je sais quelles difficultés pourraient m'empêcher de réaliser mon projet professionnel.	72,7	7,3	20,0
23. Je considère mes activités scolaires comme un moyen d'atteindre mes objectifs professionnels.	69,1	16,4	14,5

Se continue à la page suivante

Suite du tableau 1

24. Ma famille joue un rôle important dans mon projet professionnel.	58,2	36,4	5,4
25. L'expérience acquise en milieu de travail peut contribuer à l'atteinte de mes objectifs professionnels.	85,5	7,3	7,2
26. J'ai considéré mes goûts et mes capacités dans mon plan de carrière.	83,6	7,3	9,1
27. Je dois considérer les besoins futurs en main-d'œuvre avant de faire un choix professionnel.	61,8	21,8	16,4
28. J'ai cherché de l'information sur les professions et les emplois qui m'intéressent.	80,0	16,4	3,6
29. J'ai consulté différents documents pour m'aider dans mon choix professionnel.	61,8	32,7	5,5
30. J'ai obtenu de l'aide de diverses personnes pour prendre mes décisions concernant ma carrière.	50,9	41,8	7,3
31. J'ai suffisamment d'informations sur le marché du travail pour effectuer un choix professionnel éclairé.	56,4	27,3	16,3
32. Je suis capable de décrire assez bien la profession qui m'intéresse.	70,9	9,1	20,0
33. Je connais la formation requise pour réaliser mon projet professionnel.	69,1	21,8	9,1
34. Je connais les études et les qualités exigées par plusieurs professions.	63,6	23,6	12,8
35. Je peux nommer diverses professions que j'aimerais exercer.	83,6	9,1	7,3
Pourcentage moyen	**69,2**	**19,2**	**11,6**

ASPIRATIONS PROFESSIONNELLES	**VRAI**	**FAUX**	**?**
36. J'ai un projet professionnel qui m'intéresse beaucoup.	81,8	14,6	3,6
37. J'ai l'espoir de réussir ma carrière future.	85,5	1,8	12,7
38. J'ai une vision précise de ce que je désire comme carrière.	72,7	10,9	16,4
39. Mes buts professionnels sont clairs.	65,4	16,4	18,2
40. Je crois que mes chances de succès professionnel sont bonnes.	70,9	12,7	16,4
41. Je suis certain(e) de pouvoir atteindre mes objectifs professionnels.	67,2	16,4	16,4
42. Je peux parvenir à la profession à laquelle je rêve.	63,6	23,7	12,7
43. J'ai un projet professionnel auquel je tiens beaucoup.	70,9	10,9	18,2
44. J'ai confiance de pouvoir entrer dans le monde du travail.	94,5	1,8	3,7
Pourcentage moyen	**74,7**	**12,1**	**13,2**

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New measures of social economic value: Community-based training report

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Introduction

Innovation is required to document the activities, outcomes, and value of nonprofit organizations. This study utilized an experimental method for measuring the socio-economic value of nonprofits: the Richmond Social Audit Process. Research was conducted at five community-based training organizations (CBTs) across Ontario. A social auditor assessed outcomes from the five sites, assigned them a social economic value, then discussed the findings in light of provincial and national economic indicators (Gross Domestic Product figures). This brief report will summarize the context, method, findings, conclusions, and applicability of the study, and suggest areas for further research.

CBTs provide employment training and related services to those facing severe systemic and personal barriers to employment such as newcomers to Canada, youth, persons with disabilities, those receiving income benefits, older workers, women entering nontraditional trades, ex-offenders, and people who have been out of the workforce for some time. In Ontario, 115 CBTs are members of the Ontario Network of Employment Skills Training Projects (ONESTeP), which sponsored the study under discussion. (There is no official count of the total number of CBTs in Ontario or Canada.)

The study was funded by Human Resources Development Canada's London Area Office and was guided by a steering committee made up of nonprofit and public sector representatives. The research was conducted for ONESTeP by B.J. Richmond Consulting Services using the Richmond Social Audit Process to measure outcomes, to attribute values to them, and to analyse the sites' resource management in a socio-economic context.

Context: Canada's social economy

Although many Canadians have acquired skills and jobs through nonprofit training, little is known about the size, scope, staffing, number of clients served, outcomes, or impact of this area of nonprofit service delivery. This lack of information is replicated through the nonprofit sector, although nonprofit management studies are available. The study of Canadian nonprofit organizations is hampered by a severe lack of descriptive data (Quarter 1992; Campbell 1994). Gathering data on nonprofit organizations is limited because there are no unified accounting methods for nonprofits (Henke 1989). As well, rating the efficiency and effectiveness of nonprofit organizations is made difficult

by the lack of a method for measuring the outcomes of nonprofits and attributing value to them (Cherny 1992). Comparisons between nonprofit and private sector management are restricted by the absence of unified methods of accounting (Cherny 1992). Addressing this problem requires micro-level studies of nonprofits (Clotfelter 1992), research that is informed by the history and culture of nonprofit organizations (Cherny 1992).

Understanding nonprofits within the Canadian socio-economic context forms the framework for the ONESTeP study. In Canada, there are few descriptive studies of the sector (see Campbell 1994; Quarter 1992; Martin 1985), unlike its private and public sector counterparts. Several U.S. studies (see, for example, Salamon 1995; Weisbrod 1988; O'Neill 1989) refer to the nonprofit sector as the third, voluntary, charitable, humanistic, independent, and nongovernmental sector. Among North American studies of nonprofits, there is little agreement on the boundaries of the various categories, and many categories overlap.

In the absence of theoretical discussions of nonprofits in Canada, Quarter (1992) applied to the Canadian situation the more comprehensive categorization of the sector used in Europe, where it is described as the social economy. His description indicates that Canada's social economy, along with its public and private sector counterparts, is a large and dynamic player in Canada's national economy. This framework was used to prepare the ONESTeP report.

Using Quarter's definition, it is clear that organizations in Canada's social economy share several characteristics: they are nonprofit, have social goals, use volunteer resources, are community-based, and exhibit the democratic governance of one member, one vote. They include cooperatives, nonprofits in the public service, and mutual nonprofits. Organizations such as cooperative daycare centres and agricultural cooperatives, credit unions, social service agencies, universities, hospitals, community health centres, unions, churches, arts and cultural organizations, and mutual insurance companies are situated within the social economic sector (Quarter 1992).

The size and impact of this sector is significant. In 1985, Canada's humanistic organizations numbered 50,000, handled one-third of the country's national income, and their employment exceeded that of all levels of government (Martin 1985). At the end of the 1980s, there were almost 7,000 financial and nonfinancial cooperatives in Canada, which, along with mutual insurance companies, had cumulative assets of $105.9 billion and employed 70,000 people (Quarter 1992).

Method

Using the framework of Canada's social economy, the ONESTeP study, *Economic Impact of Community-based Training: Social Audit Report of Five Ontario Sites—Final Report* (ONESTeP 1996) examined how and to what extent community-based training organizations participated in their local and national economies in 1994. Five sites were selected to represent a cross-section of ONESTeP member organizations in Ontario. The study used a participatory evaluative method (Guba and Lincoln 1989) that allowed sites and participants in the study to withdraw at any time, and the sites to view and authorize release of the final report.

Using the Richmond Social Audit Process (RSAP), the social auditor and research associate examined agency documents for 1994, such as audited financial statements, annual reports, mandate, program reports to funders, contracts with funders, and evaluations. The research team also interviewed agency staff, clients who had graduated in 1994, community partners, employers who hired agency graduates, and volunteers. From this data, the social auditor assessed the agency's outcomes, then used social accounting measurements and relevant social indicators to ascribe values to the outcomes.

The social auditor also estimated volunteer contributions based on data from interviews with volunteers compared with estimates made by site executive directors. All volunteers in the study were members of the boards of directors of the sites. Volunteers were asked to assess whether the tasks they did for the organization were closer to those they did at their own paid employment, closer to the executive director's duties, or to some other measure. If they assessed the tasks as being closer to those of their own paid employment, they were asked to estimate what percentage of their skills they used while completing their volunteer tasks and to ascribe an hourly rate of value. The executive directors of the sites were asked the same questions about the volunteers, and the average of the rates from the two interview sources was used.

In its final step, the RSAP analysed resource management within each organization. By measuring the agency's incoming resources and those flowing back out into the local economy, the ratio of socio-economic return on public investment was assessed. These figures and ratios were totalled for the five sites, and an estimate of the overall impact on the Ontario economy by the 115 ONESTeP members was discussed in light of these findings. As well, the national impact was discussed for 450 CBT organizations across Canada with which ONESTeP is affiliated. These figures were used for discussion purposes only.

Findings

The research team interviewed 88 persons across the five sites including 47 graduates of the 1994 CBT programs. The total number of 1994 graduates who found work was 401, and the total amount of the wages that the employed graduates contributed to their local economies was almost $7 million, an average of $17,640 per graduate.

A total of 920 graduates went on to school or other training after graduating from the five sites, or an average of 184 per site. This was assessed as an employment enhancement outcome, one measurement of success as defined by funders of the sites. The report estimated the total market value of the graduates' training (using modest estimates), by comparing it to amounts paid by the public sector and by private consumers for similar training. The value for the employment enhancement outcome was assessed at $4,110,000.

Because the agencies provided training for those who were considered to be facing severe employment barriers in 1994, the report estimated a social dividend in excess of the amount of wages graduates contributed to the economy. This amount was based on a social indicator study that attributed the cost associated with unemployment at $3,956 per person (Bellemaire 1994). The ONESTeP study using Bellemaire's figure for each employed graduate (401) assessed a total employment dividend for the five sites of $1,586,356 that was returned to their local economies.

Social assistance dividends were also assessed to sites as a cost saving for the number of graduates who made the transition from receiving income benefits to earning wages. Based on data from the interviews with graduates and comparisons of the data with a Human Resources Development Canada study, the total social assistance dividend achieved by the five sites was $1,545,700 (EIC 1993).

The Richmond Social Audit Process examined changes that graduates reported experiencing in the health, self-esteem, and quality of life for periods before, during, and after the CBT program. Of the 47 graduates interviewed, many did not report in this area, but 6 noticed improved health after the program, 25 reported improved self-esteem, and 21 spoke of better family relations (some graduates reported in more than one category). Although this area could not be given an economic value because of a lack of data on the value of these outcomes, the figures, along with the graduates' statements, were included as descriptive data.

Employers of graduates were asked about the benefits to their companies of employing graduates of the CBT program. Although resources

permitted interviewing only a small sample of employers (an average of two per site), some employers reported savings in advertising for and training candidates. Attrition costs were noted to be lower in some cases, since CBT graduates were found to be highly motivated. Some employers reported that the CBT graduates had a positive impact on employee morale. Although inconclusive, these responses were included in the study as descriptive data.

For four of five sites, the average number of volunteers per site was 10, the average volunteer contribution per site was estimated to be $28,020, and the total value added by volunteers to their local economies was estimated to be $112,079. Volunteer data was not collected from one site in which the CBT program was a small part of a large, diversified agency.

The total of incoming resources for all five sites was $5,548,734, an average of $1,109,746 per site. Outgoing resources were assessed at $20,510,995 for the five sites, an average of $4,102,746 per site. The ratio of the social economic return for every dollar invested was 3.7 to 1.

Conclusions

Traditional economics and accounting have not addressed the value of nonprofit organizations. Social economics is in its infancy, and its results cannot yet be compared with those of mainstream economics. Although further research is required for more precise estimates, it is interesting to look at the results of the study in relation to the 115 members of ONESTeP and their possible impact on Ontario's social economy. Using the average figures from the study, the total contribution to the Ontario social economy by the 115 CBT sites could be in the range of $471,752,885, a figure that compares with that reported by the logging and forestry industries in Ontario's GDP in 1994 of $434.3 million (Statistics Canada 1995a). This figure is used for illustration purposes only.

The possible impact on the national social economy can be suggested by using the average figures from the study and considering them in light of the 450 members of the national CBT network. Using the Ontario figures to represent the average outgoing resources from CBT sites, the return to the Canadian social economy could be in the range of $1,845,989,550 for 450 sites nationally. This figure is similar to reported corporate profits before taxes for the electrical and electronics products industry of $1,637 million (Statistics Canada 1995b). Although the figures cannot be compared outright, they are offered for discussion purposes.

In order to measure the socio-economic impact of nonprofits, more precise social accounting measurements will be required. As well, unified accounting measures for nonprofit and private sector outcomes have yet to be created. This study represents a first step towards a social accounting of five nonprofit agencies in the training subsector of nonprofits. From micro studies such as this, a larger picture of Canada's social economy, and more refined instruments for measurement can be constructed. From these steps, socio-economics theory can emerge.

Further research

Currently, the Steering Committee for the Social Accounting Project is using traditional economics measurements to project the wage-and-income-benefit savings figures from the 1994 study for five-, ten-, and fifteen-year periods. The preliminary findings of the draft report show increased returns on public investment for the five Ontario CBT sites.

Other areas for development include: further quantification and evaluation of the personal and indirect benefits of social services (for example, enhanced well-being); a cross-sectoral study applying the RSAP to other subsectors of nonprofits in one geographic area; and development of other socio-economic accounting tools. As well, the RSAP is currently being adapted as a consultative model to assist nonprofit agencies in designing their own social accounting methods and to provide staff training in social accounting.

The ONESTeP study's methods are applicable to health and other social service agencies, credit unions, churches, and arts organizations, among others. They are also adaptable to the evaluation of vocational or educational programs within community colleges, unions, and other settings.

This type of study and others like it can begin to draw a picture of Canada's social economy as a significant sustaining theme in Canada's economic mural. This information is critical for social policy and allocation decisions that lie ahead.

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"Outreaching" with the employment solution

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Introduction

Entering or reentering the work force is a stressful event. If we could imagine ourselves being in that position and lacking the life-management skills to cope, we would begin to understand the significance of the Specialized Community Outreach role in an employment program.

Outreach is an innovative solution to the ongoing problem of client drop-out experienced by many employment programs. Although the concept of outreach is new, it has proven itself to be a notable addition to our program. During its first year, outreach exceeded program expectations by more than 200%. Specialized outreach support is tracked by program outcome targets, similar to all other positions in this employment project. At present, Distinctive Employment Counselling Services of Alberta (DECSA) has only one outreach position; however, plans are underway for two more outreach workers to be added to our staff.

Background

DECSA is the oldest federally funded outreach agency in Canada. The Employment Solution is a DECSA program, serving a multibarriered population of unemployed S.F.I. recipients in northeast Edmonton. Support For Independence, (S.F.I.) is Alberta's social allowance program.

The Employment Solution was established in 1994 to offer individualized and flexible employment-related skills training, as well as supported job-search and placement. This is a comprehensive program, offering a wide range of life-management training, and one-on-one and group employment counselling. Our open entry–open exit program enables the participants to focus on meeting their needs as quickly as possible.

Rationale for specialized outreach

Six months into the Employment Solution project it had become apparent that a segment of the population lacked the coping skills necessary to manage stressors in their life adequately enough to commit fully to the project activities. Poor or inadequate social and family supports, as well as an array of other serious deficits in life- and crisis-management skills, left some participants unable to succeed in a daily program. This, without question, had an impact on skill development, the drop-out rate, and outcome successes. The project was unable to

provide the level of support needed to allow higher needs clients to continue in the program. We recognized the need for specialized support for this segment of our population, who displayed high-risk barriers and behaviours. Without coping skills, participants were unable to obtain and maintain employment and/or educational outcomes. These same clients were eventually referred back to Alberta Family and Social Services. Many would be referred on to other similar programs, leaving participants feeling victimized and frustrated by the very programs set up to assist them.

What does multibarriered look like?

The term multibarriered refers to participants who have numerous barriers to employment. Listed below are the most common barriers we see in our program. It is not unusual for a participant to struggle against many barriers at the same time.

- Living below the poverty line: This is an issue faced by all of our participants without exception.
- Health and nutrition: Most participants are unable to purchase enough groceries to feed their family within Canada Food Guide Recommendations, and many do not possess the skill to do so, even if they have sufficient money.
- Living in high-density housing: This is accompanied by concerns about vandalism, poor housing conditions, and unsafe neighbourhoods.
- Socially isolated: Participants have no social supports or no supports appropriate for healthy growth.
- Lack family and community: Many participants cannot turn to family and don't know how to use community support.
- Criminal history
- Low literacy and numeracy skills
- Single parenting: 62% of our participants fall into this category.
- Addictions: 28% of participants have identified addictions, but the true number is likely much higher.
- Family violence: 71% of our participants have identified this as an issue in their childhood families, as adults, or both.
- Mental health issues: 33% have identified that they are now—or in the recent past have been—under the care of a doctor for mental health concerns.
- Inadequate child care: Many lack trust in the situation they have, and/or have no alternative child-care plan.
- Long-term unemployment: This applies to most of our participants and indicates unemployment for more than one year.

Role and responsibility of outreach

The outreach worker's mandate is to offer the support necessary to enable participants to remain in the program and obtain a successful educational or employment outcome. The Employment Solution uses a case-management focus to link clients with the outreach worker, who is a vital member of the team.

Employment counsellors make referrals to outreach after a thorough assessment of the participant barriers and needs has been completed. The outreach worker offers a nonduplicating service, which means there is no service in the community that can provide clients with the same support. Neither is it possible for the employment counsellor in the project to offer the level of support necessary for the participant to remain in the program. The outreach position is contracted to

- provide addictions and crisis intervention
- provide mental health intervention and follow-up services
- develop family-support strategies
- develop parenting skills
- develop management, budgeting, and nutrition skill
- develop confidence, self-esteem, and motivation skill
- develop anger management and communication skills
- provide community liaison, support, and referral
- provide transitional support to enhance placement success

Intended population

Twenty six percent of the Employment Solution's clients cannot adapt to change, or cope with day-to-day demands. With some, being in crisis is a familiar scenario, and they will unwittingly act in ways to ensure its continuation. For others, lifestyle or life situations interfere significantly and they need support to encourage progress.

Building a relationship with the participant is key to successful outreach intervention, and it is important that the outreach worker be familiar with the barriers facing this population. After a short assessment period, the outreach worker and the participant have had an opportunity to build a trusting, supportive relationship. For many, the level of support they receive in the program is the first healthy support that they have experienced. The probability of intervention has the best chance of succeeding when the participant views outreach as a support, and assumes some responsibility for working to identify and resolve the problems.

Outreach and the client jointly identify goals and create an action plan. This enables clients to see clearly what they may expect from this relationship. As well, they learn how to establish a plan of action and enjoy the success of a completed tasks.

Outreach statistics

The Employment Solution experience with outreach has clearly been successful. Outreach was initially contracted to provide service to 25 participants who would otherwise be unable to continue in the program. The following are the statistics for the first year of operation.

Clients receiving outreach service	52
From unpaid work experience to paid employment	6
Placed in full-time employment	10
Placed in part-time employment	1
Enrolled in education	15

Case study: Dani

Dani, a 28-year-old single mother of one child, was referred to our program and successfully completed the three-day orientation. Immediately following orientation, however, Dani disappeared. Several phone calls to her home met without success. At this point a referral was made to outreach.

Because the phone calls were not successful, the first move was to do a home visit. Dani was home alone when I arrived. She was sitting in the dark with the drapes drawn; she had been assaulted. Her two black eyes were beginning to heal, and several bruises were noticed on her arms. She described more bruising on her back. Dani's assailant was her ex-boyfriend. Apparently, he had been demanding a payment of a loan he had made to her, and when she could not comply, they argued. Dani refused medical intervention in spite of encouragement, and would not press charges.

Dani and I spent the next hour and a half together while she told me her story. According to Dani, her assailant was a pimp. She was insistent that I understand that she had never worked for him. They had had a relationship away from this other part of his life. Recently, they had agreed to go their separate ways. It was, she said, a surprise to her that he had come back for money.

Dani shared a bit about her family of origin. Her parents lived in the city. They would not, she said, be a good support to her now. Dani described them as "very strict, disapproving, European Catholic." She said they did not approve of anything she did, and in an attempt to get her to change her ways were often quite emotionally abusive. Her parents had responded with harsh disapproval to her rebellious adolescence. The family has not been able to work it through. As a result, Dani kept her life separate from theirs. Nevertheless, she continued to answer to them as if she were a child.

Dani refused any intervention on my part regarding her safety and health, and insisted that she was safe at her home. She and I came up with a safety plan should he return. As I was leaving, Dani informed me that she was pregnant and planning an abortion. Her ex-boyfriend did not know, or he'd insist she have the baby. It was agreed that Dani would return to our project to begin a course and meet with her employment counsellor tomorrow; we would continue to work together. Dani's barriers were as follows:

- violent relationship
- lack of family support
- socially isolated
- low self-esteem
- pregnant and facing an abortion

Dani and I spent four or five hours together over the next week, working through her decision about her pregnancy. Because Dani's biggest struggle appeared to be with her religion convictions, I encouraged her to seek the support and guidance of her pastor. She followed through with her decision to terminate her pregnancy, and received spiritual guidance from her pastor. Dani used outreach as a support throughout her ordeal, but appeared to recover emotionally rather quickly. Outreach support was complete.

Several weeks later, Dani approached me again for support. This time she had been subpoenaed to court. Child Welfare was asking the court for permanent custody of her child, who had been in care for over a year. This time outreach intervention involved assisting Dani to see how her behaviour had brought her to this point. She was quite honest that she had given her child-welfare worker a difficult time, and had been very uncooperative throughout her involvement with the agency. Dani said she had just now "got the wake-up call," and we began setting up a realistic plan of action to improve her relationship with Child Welfare. I made several referrals for her, including one to a parenting course, an anger-management program, and a lawyer. We role-played difficult meetings together to ensure that she could keep her temper under control, and afterward worked with the results. The outreach role was

becoming that of a coach. Reasonably soon, Dani was successfully working with Child Welfare and the lawyer, and she even managed a work experience placement. Her employer could not have been happier with her work. Once again Dani seemed to be doing well, and outreach was no longer needed.

Approximately two months later, as Dani was finishing up her work experience, she disappeared again. Once again there was no response to our phone calls. Outreach made a home visit, and no one answered the door. Several days later I received a call from Dani and went out to make a home visit. Once again Dani sat in the dark, frightened and crying. According to Dani, her ex-boyfriend had come back. This time, when she could not pay him, he forced her to work off her debt on the street. Dani was crushed. Being able to say that she had never prostituted for this fellow was very important to her. Again Dani refused to press charges. Apparently she was more afraid of him then she was by the threat that this could happen again and again. Once again Dani refused to leave her home for a safer environment.

For the next three months, Dani's life spiralled out of control. We saw gaps in her time with us, and frequent absences. Another home visit was made after an abscence of several days. She had been drinking heavily. Dani agreed it was time to sober up, and we contracted to meet the next day in my office. Several times over the next month Dani pulled herself together, only to begin drinking again.

Finally, with the support of outreach, Dani entered an addictions program. She has been successful with her recovery. She is actively seeking employment. Dani has both the skills and the desire to succeed. She needs support to overcome the obstacles that her past behaviours and life-style has created for her.

Conclusion

This case-study underlines a very important struggle for the outreach worker. The time and effort invested in Dani does not show up on a statistical sheet and will not be recognized as a success if she is not able to obtain paid employment before she completes the program. The outreach worker performs a delicate balancing act. On one hand we have the human side, the side that allows the outreach worker to become real with the participant and offer honest, empathic, supportive intervention, and the other side is the reality that this position is judged by outcome successes. However, no matter which side you chose, the position of specialized outreach support has been a valuable and measurable success in our program.

Plan your work, work your plan: A practice career-management strategy

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Plan your work, work your plan: A practice career-management strategy

The new workplace has become transformed, and the individual is reclaiming responsibility for career outcomes. Workers are being called on to demonstrate what they can do; one's hierarchical position is no protection against workplace competitors (Bardwick 1991, p. 94). It is skills that count, not seniority. In response, people are creating their own career-development experiences and opportunities instead of waiting for an employer to do it for them. They are reinventing themselves at intervals to stay aligned with employment market demands. They are practising *portfolio career management* by shaping and continually refining their employability attributes to correspond with the employment marketplace.

With the declining relevance of the traditional career ladder, the idea of the portfolio career is growing in importance: the notion that you have a collection of employment competencies to offer organizational clients, and with these competencies you will be able to add value to your employer's efforts to pursue organizational objectives (Cawsey et. al. 1995). Now, increasingly, you trade your competencies for limited-term employment of various types with several employers. This is clearly quite a different underlying concept than the old notion that you traded loyalty for long-term job security in a single firm.

The portfolio career concept

Strictly speaking, by Webster's definition, a portfolio is a folder containing works such as an artist would assemble to show to potential patrons or gallery owners to demonstrate his or her creativity and skills in one or more media. Or, if we are talking about investments, a portfolio is a collection of financial instruments such as mutual funds, stocks, shares, and bonds that you assemble to add value to your financial wealth. The investment portfolio is something you manage in order to minimize economic risks.

The portfolio career concept encompasses elements of both definitions. The building blocks of your career are workplace-oriented skills that you acquire and polish by working on projects and assignments for clients in many and varied settings. The organizations get the work they need done, and you tend your skill set to keep in practice at the skills in demand, and replace those that are outdated. This minimizes the risk that your employability skills set will become obsolete.

Your skills set is thus a dynamic set of competencies that may contain skills that you are just acquiring (emerging skills), skills at which you have gained very good or excellent competency (mature skills), and skills that are not longer in demand and that you should be discarding. For employers, the implication of your up-to-date competency profile is that you will not need extra time to get up to speed on projects, and perhaps that no organizational resources will need to be expended to train you. Or, if the organization is just converting to something that you have already mastered, you will actually be ahead of the pack and perhaps will act as a training resource for others. In any of these cases, your skills are like a form of currency that can be traded for employment.

Identifying which skills are contemporary is a research activity, and can be as simple as reading current business magazines, the Careers section of major newspapers, and the publications associated with your career. Think of this activity as a treasure hunt for clues as to which direction the skills profile in the employment market and in your profession may be going. Once you have learned which sources to consult, 30 minutes of reading each week should keep you reasonably well informed, and it is worth your while to keep an inventory of your findings on a simple database.

Portfolio career-management as described here is thus a dynamic process geared to today's turbulent environment. The ultimate goal of most people today is *employability*, which rests on possessing values, interests, and skills that meet the demands of the employ-ment market. This is unlikely to happen by serendipity; it is more likely to be the outcome of consciously making the most of your options. It is never too early to begin managing your career portfolio, and one approach that you can use to get a head start is Career Management by Objective (CMBO). CMBO adapts the principles of Management by Objective (MBO) to the management of your individual career management behaviours.

Career management by objective

Management by Objective (MBO), a managerial process popularized in the 1960s, is a decision-making and action-taking system involving managers and subordinates working together to determine priorities, develop action plans, and implement them. These same simple, basic principles can also serve as the foundation of a strategy for your individual decisions and actions that relate to portfolio career-management.

Career Management by Objective (CMBO), as a derivative of MBO, involves orderly tending of your skill set and accomplishments towards the goal of alignment with employment market demands in a way that satisfies your needs. CMBO may be seen as a proactive strategy to manage your employability-skills profile. Because your career is now your responsibility, it is both useful and necessary to practice CMBO regularly throughout your employment career. Indeed, your career is too important to entrust control of it to someone else (Cabrera and Albrecht 1995). CMBO rests on the premise that all of us are students, always. We don't, and must not, stop learning and seeking new knowledge once we leave the classroom. CMBO is a learning process, a means to and end, not the end itself. CMBO has five identifiable steps:

Step one: Assessing the employment marketplace

CMBO always begins with an understanding of the skills profile sought by contemporary employers. Your employability rests on whether or not you have these skills, which form your skill set. A skill is the ability to competently perform some dimension of a task. Many skills are generalized and therefore transferrable, like computer skills involving commonly used software packages, problem-solving skills, or self-management skills such as meeting deadlines, tolerance for ambiguity, and adaptability. Other skills are specialized and domain-specific, like using the Human Resources Information System (HRIS) or doing production accounting in a petroleum corporation. Most skills are a part of a chain of skills needed to produce a product or service.

There are many sources of information on what employers are looking for in potential candidates. A very powerful source of data is available at your fingertips: the Careers section of the newspaper. As previously noted, you can quickly gain a sense of what attributes are in demand from this source, although—to make the most of the data available to you—surveying the newspaper should not be a casual exercise.

Step two: Assessing your skill set

Once you know what skills are in demand, you can assess whether or not you have them. To make a valid claim that you possess a skill, you must be able to demonstrate it with concrete examples from your experience. You must be able to tell a story to an interviewer about an occasion when you used the skill to accomplish a goal. Such storytelling is the heart of behavioural-description interviewing, the interview methodology that presently dominates recruitment. If you cannot articulate an example of a particular skill from your classroom, extracurricular, or work experience, then you cannot claim to have that skill dimension.

Examples of behavioural description (BD) have a particular structure that involve four components: (1) identifying the skill that you demonstrated (*skill*); (2) identifying the context in which you used the skill (*situation*); (3) describing what you did in the situation (*actions*); and (4) describing the outcome of your actions (*results*). It is important to give sufficient information to create a picture in the recruiter's mind, but not to overwhelm him or her with trivial details. This is the K.I.S.S. principle (keep it simple, storyteller).

Here is an example of a concise BD that tells an interesting and lively story about a desired employment skill.

Question by the interviewer

Tell me about a time when you had to "go the extra mile" to give a customer good service.

Answer by the candidate

Recently I encountered a situation where I had to bend a company rule to get something done for a client. The company has a rule that invoices over $1000 have to be approved through the head office in Toronto. The problem is, Toronto is two hours ahead of us. If we have an invoice for more than $1000, it has to wait until the next morning to be approved.

Well, one time a client called at 4:00 p.m. with a rush order he needed to go out by 5:00 p.m. and it was for $1,300. This was a good client; not a big one, but a steady one. I knew how important this order must have been to him or he wouldn't have called so late in the day. I made the decision to ship the order anyway without advance approval and take the heat from Toronto in the morning. It wasn't greatly more than $1000 in value and it would really help a faithful customer.

The customer was really pleased and telephoned the head office the next day to let them know what good service we had given. There wasn't much Toronto could complain about under those circumstances.

Here is the S-S-A-R structure in that paragraph.

Skill

Recently I encountered a situation where I had to bend a company rule to get something done for a client.

Situation

The company has a rule that invoices over $1000 have to be approved through the head office in Toronto. The problem is, Toronto is two hours ahead of us. If we have an invoice for more than $1000, it has to wait until the next morning to be approved. Well, one time a client called at 4:00 p.m. with a rush order he needed to go out by 5:00 p.m., and it was for $1,300. Now this was a good client; not a big one, but a steady one.

Actions

I made the decision to ship the order anyway without advance approval and take the heat from Toronto in the morning. It wasn't greatly more than $1000 in value and it would really help a faithful customer.

Results

The customer was really pleased and telephoned the head office the next day to let them know what good service we had given. There wasn't much Toronto could complain about under those circumstances.

This simple story demonstrates a strong customer focus as well as the willingness to take reasonable risks. There is no evidence here to suggest that the candidate flouts company rules on a whim. It is important to note that the outcome was externally validated when the customer telephoned head office. This behaviour-description example exhibits the multifocal nature inherent in a good BD tale. More than one skill is demonstrated in a single example, which follows the K.I.S.S. principle.

K.I.S.S.-ing is an acquired skill for most people, one that sends the recruiter the message that you are well organized and articulate. Writing out BD examples for the desired employability skills, and editing for K.I.S.S., is an excellent investment of time. It is also a way in which you can determine your employability profile. Returning to our CMBO principles, the second step of CMBO is to diagnose your employability-skills profile. You can do this by using the Employability Skills Inventory (ESI), which requires you to produce a BD example of the skill in question. If you can produce a good BD example, then you can claim to have the skill. If you do not have a good BD example to support your claim, you are in a position to take steps to acquire the skills.

Step three: Action planning for skill acquisition

The third step of CMBO is your plan to acquire the desired skill so that you can legitimately claim it on a résumé or in an interview. This is accomplished by writing an action plan that states the avenue of acquisi-

tion and a deadline. Avenues through which you may acquire the skill include formal education (university course, college course, professional development seminar, or company training event), being involved in extracurricular activities, seeking employment activities that will provide you with the target skill, or performing a community service that requires the desired skill.

If your self-assessment indicates that analysis and problem solving is a skill that you cannot claim by spinning out a good behavioural-description example, find a situation in which that skill will be necessary. For instance, if you belong to a campus organization or volunteer in the community for an organization that needs a two-page quarterly newsletter for its members, offer to write and produce the newsletter. This will provide you with the opportunity to learn page-design software and to study the principles of good newsletter design. The resources for this learning are relatively inexpensive and widely accessible: a personal computer, a how-to book on newsletter writing, and a how-to book on using the software. You need not try to teach yourself complex desktop publishing tasks or use the most exotic software. The result of this project will be a rich opportunity for behavioural description and a tangible product that you can put into your portfolio.

It is obvious that an action plan must include both the specific tactic for acquiring the skill and the venue in which the opportunity is available. Thus, writing a feasible action plan is usually not simply an intellectual exercise. It most often requires considerable footwork to find out where appropriate skill-acquisition opportunities may lie and in what way the opportunity can be exploited to your advantage. Thus, action planning may entail telephone inquiries, library research, and networking before you are in a position to write down something definitive. And, by the example given above, the process time or time-to-goal may be weeks or months. Ensure that the time line you set for yourself on a particular goal is reasonable, but not so long that you may lose sight of what you are trying to do. A time line of three to six months is practical in many cases, and is both short enough to keep you interested and long enough to get the resources located and lined up.

Step four: Working your action plan

The fourth step is to implement your action plan. Your final objective is to have a K.I.S.S.-ed behavioural example to add to your inventory for the target skill. Ultimately, your goal is to have at least one BD example for each of the desired employment skills, leading to a strong employability-skills profile. Even better, develop two or three examples for each desired employment skill. Build yourself a databank of these examples using a word-processor. The return on investment for your

efforts will be a ready-to-use library of BD examples that you can call up for résumés, standardized application forms, covering letters, and in can use live interviews.

Once you have acquired a skill, you do not want to rest on your laurels. Be alert for opportunities to strengthen skills that are in demand. Tend your library of BD examples regularly, adding better examples as they occur and deleting the weaker ones.

Step five: Reviewing the outcomes of your action plan

You set time lines to accomplish your goals in the action plan. When the time line for a particular item expires, it is time to review what happened. Did you acquire the skill you were seeking? If you didn't, why not? Perhaps you set too short a time line or perhaps the source of the learning was unavailable. Did you pursue the goal sincerely and with conviction? In any case, if you did not acquire or polish the skill you targeted, realistically consider the reasons.

Once you have determined what the source of the shortfall was on a particular goal, you have some options:

(a) If the goal was reasonable, recommit to it and try again.
(b) If the goal was unreasonable, change your action plan to make it reasonable.
(c) If the goal was unreasonable and no change of action plan will make it so, abandon that particular goal.

Obviously, the last option is the easy way out and not the option of choice, assuming the skill you have targeted for acquisition or polishing will enhance your employability skills. However, if you can honestly say that there are resource barriers that genuinely make the goal unattainable, it is foolish to continue pursuing it. Still, beware of the self-fulfilling negative prophecy: if you think you can't do something, indeed you won't be able to do it!

Do a review of your entire action plan at least every 12 months. Give yourself a report card on how well you have done. If you have been diligent, the act of reviewing your action plan and observing your successes will in itself be a rewarding activity, one that will help you recognize the merits of proactive career management and continue your commitment to it.

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Syndrome d'épuisement chez les chômeurs de longue durée et chez les autres

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Contexte

Dans le cadre du service public de consultation en orientation du Canton de Genève, le nombre de consultants au chômage ne cesse d'augmenter (plus de 200 % d'augmentation ces deux dernières années). Nous avons constaté que parmi eux, une partie importante se trouvait dans une situation personnelle difficile et dans un état psychologique et physique qui ressemblait dans ses manifestations au syndrome d'épuisement professionnel. Par ailleurs, leurs demandes étaient généralement floues : reprendre une formation, faire une reconversion, trouver du travail, faire le point.

Rapidement, nous nous sommes rendu compte que pour répondre à ces personnes, il était nécessaire de mettre en place une structure particulière. Ainsi a été créé Projet Emploi, qui est un programme d'aide individualisé pour chômeurs.

Problèmes rencontrés

Nous avons rencontré deux types de problèmes : un d'ordre théorique, l'autre méthodologique.

Les effets du chômage, les changements que celui-ci entraîne dans la vie du demandeur d'emploi, ont été et continuent d'être amplement étudiés, ce qui favorise une meilleure compréhension de la situation. Toutefois, ces études ne nous ont pas permis de comprendre pourquoi chez certaines personnes les conséquences sont telles qu'elles les enferment dans un état d'épuisement.

Par ailleurs, les considérations sur le vécu du chômage sont encore très marquées par une tendance à considérer les réactions du chômeur à partir du premier jour du chômage. Cependant, elles ne prennent pas en compte la continuité entre la vie de travail et de non-travail du point de vue psychologique. Dans ce sens, il faut rappeler que le chômage est la conséquence d'une rupture économique et pas forcément une rupture psychologique, même si la situation de non-emploi peut engendrer des réactions comportementales adaptées à la perte du travail.

Du point de vue méthodologique, les recherches sur les chômeurs amènent rarement des cadres d'intervention. Elles émanent souvent de chercheurs qui n'ont pas à répondre quotidiennement à des personnes cherchant des réponses concrètes aux problèmes quotidiens qu'elles rencontrent et aux difficultés qu'elles ont à retrouver un emploi.

Par ailleurs, les méthodes d'intervention habituelles reposent traditionnellement sur des appuis à la recherche d'emploi ou sur des techniques de remobilisation. Celles-ci peuvent s'avérer efficaces pour

des personnes ayant un bon niveau d'employabilité, mais risquent d'accroître les difficultés de celles et ceux qui ne sont pas prêts à retrouver un emploi.

L'épuisement du chômeur

Une partie importante des chômeurs que nous recevons (environ 50 %) présente un état d'épuisement analogue à celui que l'on rencontre chez certains professionnels, communément appelé le «burnout». La ressemblance se situe au niveau des symptômes. Toutefois, l'épuisement du chômeur est bien sûr spécifique quant aux causes, car il se manifeste, au moment où nous rencontrons les personnes, dans un contexte bien précis qui est celui de la recherche d'un emploi et de l'impossibilité d'en trouver un.

Cet état d'épuisement se manifeste essentiellement par une diminution importante de vitalité. Les personnes mettent en relation cet état avec leur situation actuelle, avec leur difficulté à trouver un emploi, le sentiment de dévalorisation (elles ne sont plus reconnues par la société), les problèmes engendrés en terme de statut, de position sociale, de perte d'autonomie financière, d'isolement, etc.

Toujours par analogie avec le «burnout», il est possible d'identifier trois éléments qui peuvent apparaître de manière plus ou moins importante et prédominante : la fatigue physique, la fatigue émotionnelle, la fatigue mentale.

La fatigue physique s'exprime par une diminution d'énergie, une fatigue chronique, un affaiblissement. Il est possible d'observer une propension aux accidents et aux maladies, aux migraines, nausées, lésions musculaires et changement dans les habitudes alimentaires et le poids.

La fatigue émotionnelle se manifeste par des sentiments de dépression, de désespoir, d'impuissance et une sensation d'être aux prises avec une situation inextricable. Cet état peut provoquer des accès de larmes incontrôlables, qui apparaissent souvent dans les premiers entretiens. La personne se sent vidée, s'irrite et s'énerve facilement. Aux sentiments de bonheur et d'espoir font place désormais sensation d'isolement, découragement, désenchantement.

La fatigue mentale est liée au développement d'attitudes négatives vis-à-vis de soi-même et de sa vie. Il émerge un sentiment d'incompétence, d'incapacité, et le développement d'attitudes négatives également à l'égard des autres.

La littérature qui traite du vécu du chômeur fait référence fréquemment à l'ensemble de ces symptômes pour caractériser les phases par lesquels les chômeurs passeraient suite à la perte de leur emploi. L'épuisement se caractérise d'une part, par une persistance de ces différents symptômes, d'autre part par l'intensité avec lesquels ils se manifestent, ce qui nécessite fréquemment l'appel à des médecins ou autres soignants. Par contre, les approches médicales ou thérapeutiques traditionnelles s'avèrent souvent peu pertinentes, dans la mesure où elles se centrent sur les symptômes sans prendre en compte la globalité de la situation et sa spécificité contextuelle.

Cadre théorique

Face au constat d'épuisement, nous nous sommes interrogés sur la relation linéaire qui pouvait exister entre le syndrome d'épuisement et la durée du chômage. Rapidement, cette hypothèse a été écartée, dans la mesure où nous rencontrons des chômeurs de longue durée qui ne présentent pas ces symptômes. Par ailleurs, nous recevons de manière aussi fréquente des personnes qui sont au chômage depuis quelques semaines, chez lesquelles il est possible d'observer de manière très claire l'ensemble des signes cliniques décrits plus haut.

Nous avons retenu une autre explication. Généralement les chômeurs qui sont dans cet état ont tous, à des titres divers, vécu des expériences particulières pendant leur emploi et présentent déjà au moment de leur activité professionnelle des signes d'épuisement. Ainsi pour ces personnes, l'épuisement n'est donc pas seulement la conséquence d'un chômage qui se prolonge.

Situations de travail caractéristiques d'un épuisement

Nous avons pu regrouper quelques situations caractéristiques de travail chez les chômeurs en situation d'épuisement.

Surinvestissement

Cela concerne notamment les personnes pour lesquelles le travail occupe une place excessivement importante : leur vie privée est agencée en fonction des faibles disponibilités que leur laisse le travail. Dans cette catégorie, nous trouvons ceux qui accumulent de nombreuses heures supplémentaires, assumant un stress toujours plus grand, sans pouvoir se plaindre, etc. Identité personnelle et identité professionnelle ne font qu'un. Subir un licenciement après s'être donné à tel point à son travail peut être vécu comme une trahison dont il est parfois difficile de se remettre.

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Le travail vécu comme contrainte

Certaines personnes s'investissent sans limite dans leur travail et se retrouvent dans un état de fatigue constante, sans pour autant que cela corresponde à un choix délibéré de leur part. La fatigue est alors simplement subie comme le résultat d'un excès de travail et non pas comme la conséquence de leur enthousiasme au travail. De fait, ces personnes se trouvent en déficit d'autonomie. Leur engagement réel ne correspond pas à leur engagement psychologique. Du coup, elles se privent également des moyens de se positionner véritablement par rapport à leur activité qu'ils ne font plus que subir. Se plaindre ou demander de l'aide, par exemple, ne fait pas partie de leur fonctionnement.

Elles sont affaiblies par leur stress et lorsque la fatigue devient trop lourde, elles ne travaillent peut-être plus aussi bien ou ne sont plus aussi productives et seront en position délicate lorsque l'entreprise devra opérer des licenciements.

Exemple : *Homme, 52 ans. Technicien géologue en Bulgarie, magasinier en Suisse. Au chômage depuis une année et demie. Il a travaillé pendant 18 ans comme technicien en géologie en Bulgarie. Il est arrivé en Suisse en 1986; il a été immédiatement engagé comme magasinier, préparateur de commandes. Il a travaillé à ce poste pendant 9 ans et demi. Il a été la seule personne que l'entreprise a gardée aussi longtemps, il a vu tous ses collègues être licenciés pendant cette période. Il travaillait beaucoup, le soir jusqu'à tard et parfois le samedi. Il ne s'attendait pas du tout à être licencié, même s'il savait que c'était une pratique courante dans la maison. Il a travaillé très dur. Il a finalement perdu son travail, car il a fait une petite dépression d'une semaine, à la suite d'une maladie de sa fille. Il a reçu son congé pendant son arrêt maladie, ce qui a été extrêmement blessant pour lui.*

Relations difficiles avec les supérieurs hiérarchiques ou les collègues

Dans cette catégorie, nous retrouvons des personnes qui ont vécu de mauvaises expériences relationnelles dans le contexte professionnel. Cela concerne par exemple les personnes qui sont systématiquement mises à l'écart lors de prises de décisions à l'intérieur de l'entreprise, les personnes qui doivent accomplir les tâches les plus ingrates, celles qui sont victimes de plaisanteries sur leurs caractéristiques personnelles (physiques, nationalité, etc.) et qui ne savent pas se défendre. Parmi nos consultants, nous avons relevé une majorité de femmes dans cette catégorie.

Exemple: *Femme, 48 ans, sans formation, au chômage depuis 3 mois. Elle est arrivée en Suisse d'Amérique latine, à l'âge de 18 ans. Elle a travaillé d'abord comme «servante» chez sa soeur. Depuis, elle a*

toujours travaillé dans des bureaux, sans être formée. Pendant les 6 derniers mois, elle a été opératrice de saisie dans une banque. Elle était malheureuse, ne se sentait pas respectée. On lui faisait constamment des remarques, notamment sur son âge : «t'en fais pas belle-mère, tu seras bientôt au placard». Elle vit son chômage comme une trahison. «J'ai travaillé toute ma vie. Je suis écoeurée, dépressive, c'est l'horreur». Elle regrette toujours de ne pas avoir eu une formation professionnelle qui l'aurait, à son avis, protégée.

Une situation de double contrainte

Faire le constat d'un lien entre situation de travail et le vécu pendant le chômage ne permet pas encore d'expliquer pourquoi l'épuisement ressenti pendant le travail perdure pendant le chômage. On pourrait imaginer que la personne puisse au contraire «récupérer», se ressourcer dans cette situation. Nous faisons l'hypothèse que, pendant le chômage, ces personnes se trouvent dans une situation de double contrainte :

1. d'une part, pour des raisons économiques, sociales, légales, elles doivent retrouver un emploi, s'activer à chercher du travail, accomplir des démarches;

2. d'autre part, pour des raisons personnelles, elles ne peuvent envisager l'emploi, donc une perspective positive, dans la mesure où il ne représente souvent qu'une expérience traumatisante, un vécu douloureux, une négation de leur identité. Chez ces personnes, la relation au travail ayant pris exclusivement la forme d'une obligation subie, elles ont tendance à ne considérer que l'aspect pécuniaire du travail. Elles se disent prêtes à accepter n'importe quel emploi, pourvu qu'elles puissent gagner de l'argent et retrouver une autonomie financière. Cependant, pour préserver leur identité, elles doivent renoncer à travailler.

Cette situation de double contrainte ne permet plus à la personne d'utiliser les ressources nécessaires à la construction d'un projet ni de maintenir de relations extérieures. Elle ne sera plus prête à saisir d'éventuelles opportunités qui pourraient se présenter à elle. Elle renforce les sentiments de dépression, de désespoir, d'impuissance, les attitudes négatives vis-à-vis de soi-même, de colère face à l'extérieur, à l'environnement socio-économique, autant d'éléments qui ont été mentionnés plus haut dans la description. C'est la poursuite d'un cercle vicieux.

Il est bien compréhensible que cet état représente un facteur de risque majeur, non seulement de chômage de longue durée, mais d'exclusion

et de marginalisation sociale. Dès lors, notre objectif, en terme d'intervention, ne vise pas en premier lieu l'emploi, mais à parvenir à sortir d'un tel cadre vicieux. Le but est d'atténuer cette pression qui s'exerce sur la personne, de progressivement sortir de l'épuisement, pour ensuite parvenir à envisager l'avenir différemment. Pour y arriver nous avons construit un cadre d'intervention, qui comprend plusieurs modalités.

Modalités d'intervention

Définition du cadre

Lorsque les chômeurs s'adressent à Projet Emploi, ils formulent généralement leur demande de manière très concrète : aide à la recherche d'emploi, envisager de faire une formation, savoir dans quels domaines ils peuvent se reconvertir. Derrière ces demandes, c'est toujours la demande d'un emploi qui est prédominante. Lorsque le chômage dure depuis plusieurs mois, voire plusieurs années, les personnes ont déjà entrepris toute une série de démarches. Elles s'adressent souvent à Projet Emploi par le biais de leur conseillers en placement, sans savoir ce que Projet Emploi peut leur offrir.

La première phase de l'intervention consiste toujours en une séance collective d'accueil au cours de laquelle nous informons les personnes sur la prestation, en insistant sur le cadre d'intervention, et notamment les éléments suivants.

Le temps : le programme proposé consiste en 5 à 8 entretiens individuels (un par semaine); dans un premier temps 5, puis éventuellement, 3 séances supplémentaires. Dans le but de favoriser un processus à la fois relationnel avec le conseiller et de développement personnel, nous fixons dès le départ toutes les dates. Ceci permet au conseiller de pouvoir analyser les effets de l'intervention, comment la personne réagit à l'aide qui lui est proposée. Cette dimension temporelle est centrale dans la mesure où elle favorise déjà une responsabilité de la personne : c'est du temps qui lui appartient; la seule contrainte, c'est la durée. On constate généralement un effet de surprise lorsque l'on annonce ce premier élément, le temps. Soit que les personnes s'inquiètent de ce qui se passera si elles retrouvent du travail, soit qu'elles estiment que c'est trop long, car elles veulent du travail tout de suite.

Les règles déontologiques : la personne doit être volontaire; aucune information n'est transmise à un tiers sans son accord. La constitution du dossier et son accès par la personne sont soumis à des règles juridiques et professionnelles bien définies. Le conseiller n'émet pas

de jugement de valeur sur la personne; il ne se substitue pas à elle, il ne lui dit pas ce qu'elle a à faire, il ne lui vend pas un système, un modèle, une méthode.

Les objectifs : ils sont toujours définis avec la personne. Projet Emploi est une structure destinée à favoriser l'insertion sociale et professionnelle. Cependant les chemins pour y parvenir sont définis avec la personne, par rapport à ses besoins, ses ressources. Il est rappelé également que ces objectifs peuvent se modifier et évoluer au cours de l'intervention.

Les règles de fonctionnement : en principe les séances manquées ne sont pas remplacées; les séances durent une heure; elles ont toujours lieu au même endroit.

Ce cadre a pour but de favoriser à la fois la confiance avec le conseiller, et de permettre à la personne d'exprimer ses difficultés dans un cadre structurant.

Création d'un climat de confiance

Lors de la première séance, il arrive très fréquemment que les consultants fassent part de leur désarroi face à la situation de non-emploi, qu'ils expriment des rancoeurs à l'égard de leurs anciens employeurs, qu'ils manifestent leur désespoir, leur colère : souvent ils pleurent... Le conseiller peut alors proposer à la personne certaines tâches visant à reconstruire le parcours professionnel : rechercher des dates, des événements particuliers. D'autres tâches concernent plutôt la vie quotidienne, l'organisation du temps, les aspects que la personne privilégie.

Dans les premières séances, il est souvent proposé de faire apparaître les éléments positifs de la personne, les actions concrètes qu'elle a pu entreprendre (travail de bilan). Ce travail vise avant tout à construire le climat de confiance dont il a été fait mention plus haut et à communiquer à la personne que le conseiller est avant tout là pour elle.

Sortir de la double contrainte

Ce climat favorise progressivement la mise en évidence d'autres informations sur la situation actuelle de la personne. Cette dernière peut alors exprimer combien il est difficile pour elle de faire la même activité que celle déjà exercée, combien elle se sent peu qualifiée. Elle peut dire dans quelles conditions elle a exercé des emplois et exprimer les souffrances engendrées par les moqueries, les allusions perfides,

les disqualifications. Apparaissent dans d'autres difficultés liées à la vie sociale (absence et disparition de biens sociaux, difficultés familiales, problèmes de divorce, de deuil, non-reconnaissance de la part des tiers, échecs pendant la formation, frustration de n'avoir pu entreprendre une formation souhaitée).

Dès lors, ce n'est plus d'un chômeur qu'il s'agit, c'est d'une personne face à des difficultés. La seule évocation de ces problématiques est souvent accompagnée chez la personne de différents types de comportements : modification de l'organisation du temps, changement d'apparence physique, reprise de contacts sociaux. Nous observons également à ce stade, et de manière fréquente, que les consultants amènent des cadeaux aux conseillers, parfois même onéreux, alors qu'ils ont souvent peu de moyens.

Momentanément du moins, la double contrainte dont nous parlions plus haut n'a plus pour effet de bloquer le potentiel de la personne. Il ne s'agit plus de trouver du travail, il s'agit d'abord de résoudre certaines difficultés.

La définition des besoins

Lors de cette phase, conseiller et consultant définissent les besoins par rapport à un avenir proche : est-ce qu'il s'agit d'abord de trouver des solutions à des problèmes relationnels, de considérer quelles sont les priorités en terme de formation, de déterminer les conditions acceptables à la reprise d'un emploi, de considérer l'emploi non plus seulement comme une activité lucrative, mais comme pouvant répondre à certains besoins personnels, en terme de valorisation, de reconnaissance? Il s'agit donc à partir, des besoins de la personne, de faire émerger les valeurs positives du travail.

L'élaboration d'un projet

Un des constats que font les conseillers s'occupant de chômeurs en difficulté, c'est l'absence de projets personnels et professionnels. L'élaboration d'un projet nécessite préalablement certaines conditions qui ne sont pas remplies au moment où les personnes arrivent à Projet Emploi.

Par contre, à partir du moment où la personne a le sentiment de pouvoir avoir une prise sur sa situation, elle peut à nouveau avoir un sentiment positif vis-à-vis d'elle-même, retrouver de l'énergie, s'ouvrir aux autres. Elle peut également définir des objectifs par rapport à sa vie.

La dernière phase de l'intervention est celle où le chômeur a le projet de retrouver un emploi et qu'il reçoit de l'aide à cet effet sous forme de stages professionnels, de techniques de recherche d'emploi, de perfectionnement professionnel, de bilan de compétences. Toutes ces aides deviennent dès lors pertinentes; par contre, elle ne le sont pas lorsque la personne se trouve en situation d'épuisement.

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LearnScape: Comprehensive professional development software

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LearnScape: Comprehensive professional development software

LearnScape is a self-directed learning and performance system designed for Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC) workers, but adaptable to any organization. Contained within a software package, guidebook, and supervisor/team leader guide, LearnScape comprises three main components:

1. LearnScape Task Checker
   The entry point into the LearnScape landscape, the LearnScape Task Checker helps:
   - determine the tasks relevant to the user's job
   - measure proficiency in tasks
   - set learning goals and learning action plans
   - develop comprehensive learning strategies
   - get learning tips
   - record personal ingredients the user brings to the job

2. LearnScape Diagnostic
   When the user is doing everything right but is still not getting desired results, LearnScape Diagnostic helps pinpoint where the problem may be. Perhaps the problem is not with the user but is with the system or the client, or in the worker-client interaction. LearnScape Diagnostic helps identify the source of the problem and suggests strategies for resolving the problem.

3. LearnScape Trainer
   When learning strategies and action plans point to the need for training, LearnScape Trainer will provide interactive on-screen training (this component is yet to be developed, but the software is designed to incorporate interactive training).

The complete LearnScape package helps users take control of their own learning and development. LearnScape is an entirely self-directed system; no one but the user controls the process the user goes through or the content of learning. The user's learning becomes more systematic, efficient, and personalized, meeting both the user's needs and HRDC's needs.

There are many ways to explore the landscape of LearnScape; below find a typical path through LearnScape.

1. Self-assessment: check task relevance and proficiency
2. Action planning: set learning goals and develop action plans
3. Learning: follow action plans with help from "tips" and "strategies" provided
4. Measuring performance: measure outcomes and processes

5. I'm doing everything right, but...: pinpoint problems and suggest changes to LearnScape

Each phases of a typical journey through LearnScape is described below.

1. Self-assessment

a. Log onto the program by entering one's name and inserting a formatted disk into the floppy drive.
b. Review all the possible tasks in one's job and decide:
   · whether the task is relevant to one's job or not
   · how proficient one feels at the task
c. Receive a printout of the tasks, their relevance, and one's proficiency.
d. Review the printout with one's supervisor.
e. Return to LearnScape and make any changes one would like.

Note: The above five steps are skipped after the user has performed them once, but the user can always return to self-assessment.

2. Action planning

a. Review "Learning Tips" on tasks for which one is not proficient (optional).
b. Use the "Learning Decision-Maker" to prioritize one's top three learning goals.
c. Develop "Action Plans" for one's top three learning goals.

3. Learning

Begin following action plans to improve proficiency:

a. Get "Learning Tips" at any time (including references to other resources).
b. Identify and overcome "Learning Barriers" at any time on screen or in print.
c. Identify and use appropriate "Learning Strategies" at any time on screen or in print.
d. Examine and improve the competencies (skills, knowledge, and attitudes) associated with each task.
e. In future versions, take on-screen training with LearnScape Trainer.

4. Measuring performance

Measure proficiency as action plans are completed:

a. Read the outcome standards and process standards for the task.
b. For process standards, select two of six types of measures: self, client, co-worker, supervisor, training, and scenario. Print the measures, use the measures, and score the results. Record the results in LearnScape.
c. For outcome standards, select one of three types of measures:

self, client and system. Print the measures, use the measures, and score the results. Record the results in LearnScape.

5. I'm doing everything right, but...

1. When doing everything right but not getting the desired results, pinpoint problems with LearnScape Diagnostic.
2. When doing everything right, but LearnScape has un-realistic expectations, record and send comments to the LearnScape System Manager. Doing so will continuously improve LearnScape.
3. When doing everything right, but LearnScape has not listed what one is doing, add "Personal Ingredients" to the system. This will record the "extras" one brings to one's job and, if sent to the LearnScape System Manager, will continuously improve the system.

Additional features

- Users can go from one place to another almost instantly, creating their own paths as they go.
- Information security is entirely in the user's control: all user information is stored on a disk that the user keeps.
- An automatic save feature saves information every time the user changes screens.
- Users can print out a number of reports of their own proficiency as well as evidence of their proficiency.

It bears repeating that the above is just a typical way of moving through the LearnScape landscape. Users will make their own paths as they work with the software. LearnScape is about the user taking charge of his or her own learning, so each user can feel free to work with LearnScape in a way that best works for him or her.

Learning strategies: Overview

LearnScape is supported by a systematic professional development model called CONDUCT. The CONDUCT approach helps map out the best ways for users to learn what they need to learn. It is useful to follow these steps in order, but users are encouraged to follow a sequence best for them. The steps are divided into three main categories:

1. Setting the learning stage

- Career building: helps connect learning with career development
- Self-work: helps users reflect on work and learning
- Learning receptivity: helps make users more open to learning
- Needs analysis: helps users identify learning needs
- Overcoming learning barriers: helps users identify, remove, and/

or get around learning barriers (these include environmental barriers, called learning obstacles, and self-created barriers, called learning defences)

2. Managing learning

- Acquire—helps users map out how to best acquire a new ability
- Apply—helps users make sure they practise an ability
- Personalize—helps users hone and refine an ability
- Extend—helps users truly master an ability

3. Evaluating/monitoring

- Helps users ensure learning is most effective

The *LearnScape Guidebook* and help files provide users with considerable support in learning and implementing these learning strategies.

Implementation

LearnScape is currently being implemented within HRDC, centre by centre. A systematic evaluation accompanies the implementation; data is expected within months. Anecdotal evidence suggests that workers and supervisors/team leaders are exceedingly pleased with the system's ability to help workers take control of their own learning and follow individual learning and development plans within a context of clear, explicit performance expectations.

Values alignment: A hands-on session for counsellors

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Values alignment: A hands-on session for counsellors

Worldwide, our workplaces are undergoing the single most significant change since the industrial revolution: the end of employers as life-long work providers, and the subsequent rise of self-directed employees. The Valuescards™ assist people to successfully manage these changes by first helping them to identify and understand the fundamental reasons behind their career decisions, and then to apply this information in effectively managing their careers and personal lives.

In order to understand the underlying factors that motivate their life decisions—and to successfully manage change—people must be able to identify their values. Working in small groups during this session, participants will work through values assessment cases using the Valuescards™. After analysing the cases, participants will complete an exercise first on their own, then with the group to broaden their experience for using the Valuescards™ in one-on-one counselling sessions.

The structured format of the Michelle and Claire cases allowed for participants to have maximum practice and to learn investigative techniques—using the Valuescards™—that can be applied in their counselling practices. Key learning for participants is that the counsellor's role is to facilitate insight and allow clients to validate their own experience of what is important. Clients find Valuescards™ an effective tool to clarify their values and needs. The facilitative counsellor is able to assist the client by relating the identified and validated values to the organizational context. Clients are then able to make meaningful life and employability decisions, by focusing on their core needs and values. This enhances self-satisfaction and continuing employability.

In our first case, Michelle illustrates a career change, and a values conflict within the organization. In the second case, Claire illustrates values in conflict with an organization, a career transition and a career change. In both cases the strategy and outcome are outlined.

Values assessment using Valuescards™

Case 1: Michelle[1]

Michelle has been principal of an elementary French immersion school for one year. During early stages of the second school year, she was feeling panic, anxiety, and high levels of stress. Thinking she was in the wrong job, Michelle sought the assistance of a career counsellor.

Work environment

This relatively small school is located in an upper- to middle-income, multi-cultural community. The previous principal was moved to another school because of difficulties he had with the job. Parents are highly involved, some being described as meddling and over-controlling. The school board considered this school a *problem* when they offered the job to Michelle.

Michelle's background

Michelle is married, in her late 40s with no children, and has a happy personal life. She started her career as an elementary school teacher, progressed well, and worked at the board level as manager of training and organizational development. Pursuing her interest in organizational development and working with young children, to her the opportunity to be principal of a *school in trouble* seemed the ideal job and a dream come true. This was her first experience in line management, and she had no previous experience in a vice-principal's position.

Michelle moved into the position in the middle of the school year, immediately started having problems with several staff and parents, and did not receive the support from the board superintendent that she perceived she needed. She finished her first school year feeling that she had just made it through the year. However, as the second year began, she was experiencing panic attacks, anxiety, and sleep problems, which led to self-doubt and questioning if she was in the right job. At this point, Michelle sought career counselling.

Counsellor's approach

The counsellor focused on identifying areas of conflict between values, needs, and behaviours.

Michelle's assessment

Her boss:

- was waiting another year to retire and therefore did not want to create waves;
- tended to be a "yes" person, telling her he would help and be a support, but took no action;
- was considered a good politician and could be counted on to protect her from getting fired.

Her staff:

- Michelle described her secretary as belligerent and incompetent. She had very long service, was a member of the union and impossible to fire, and had established such a reputation that she could not be moved. The secretary was no good with details, would "forget" to

schedule meetings or inform only half the participants. The quality of her work was inconsistent. All of this made it necessary that Michelle spend far more time managing detail than she wanter. Her secretary also had strong ties to several parents who created difficulties for Michelle.

- Although there were problems with several teaching staff early in the relationship, they were settled quickly. Michelle established a strong relationship with two of her vice-principals, one of whom loved details, while the other preferred ideas.

The parents and community liaison:

- Several parents were unhappy with Michelle's style and the changes she introduced, and petitioned to have her removed from the school. The petition split the parents—many of whom liked what Michelle was doing, as well as her style and her energy. The petition was unsuccessful, yet several parents continued to "camp out" every day in the schoolyard and complain.

Values summary

Follow is Michelle's assessment of what she found important when using the Valuescards™ as the discussion tool.

High impact values Column D: *What the high impact value means to me (expanding the definition)*	**Behaviours** Column E: *Some of the things I do (behaviours, attitudes, beliefs) that support these values*
Trust Believing in and supporting a relationship	Build trust with co-workers to do the best work—show. Acceptance and tolerance.
Autonomy Planning and being able to work without supervision	Improving present conditions or ways of doing things using own ideas or those of others. Develop ideas.
Power Having influence over one's own future	Having the ability to make choices and consider different avenues of freedom to explore.
Competency Using your skills, abilities, and know-how	Building on strengths, sharing expertise. Being able to focus on ideas and minimize detail and administrative work.

Note: Only the four most relevant values from Michelle's worksheet are listed here.

Michelle's values assessment (NATCON session discussion worksheet)

Counsellor insights and areas to explore

The case was read from an handout and the following questions were discussed by the group and the facilitor. What insights and observations can you draw from the information provided? Is there any additional assumptions? Can you identify the themes of personal needs, and are they being met?

Michelle's insights, and the strategy she employed

Trust had not been established with parent and community groups. The behaviour of various parents indicates a possible desire for greater input and/or information from Michelle. Yet Michelle felt out of control, and certain parents were attempting to over-control in areas Michelle felt were inappropriate. The more parents attempted to establish control, the more Michelle resisted. The more Michelle resisted, the more she turned to her superintendent who could not help. This lack of support contributed to her increased feelings of isolation from—and abandonment by—her management.

Moreover, Michelle was overwhelmed with administrative detail because her secretary would not look after it. This prevented her from doing things she was good at doing and was hired to accomplish.

Michelle's needs

To trust and be trusted by the parents; to have a clear direction unencumbered by detail; to feel a sense of working together toward a common good.

Strategies

Administrative:

- Delegate detail work to the vice-principal who wanted more responsibility.
- Hire a part-time secretary to look after Michelle's appointments and critical meetings.
- Take steps to transfer her full-time secretary elsewhere.

Leadership:

- Establish a series of meetings with parents while retaining tight control of the agenda.
- Arrange a series of team-effectiveness meetings with key parents to clear the air and establish a clear direction for the school.

Six months later

Trust building had dramatically improved relationships with parents.

Team building and strategy sessions had satisfactory outcomes for parents and Michelle. Michelle experienced greater autonomy, and her panic attacks ended. She delegated detail work to a part-time secretary and a vice-principal, so had been freed from detail and administrative work. The panic and anxiety attacks had ended and Michelle was feeling a greater sense of personal satisfaction.

Values assessment using Valuescards™

Case 2: Claire[1]

Claire is an unemployed, single mother in her mid-30s, who has a teenage son, and close relationships with her extended family. She is of eastern European–Canadian background. Her family and community are very important to her. She lost her high-profile, demanding job three months prior to seeing a transition counsellor. She had no idea what she wanted to do next and was disillusioned with the field of high technology.

Work environment

A rapidly growing high technology company whose president was 36 years old, and most of the management team under 35. Claire had an excellent work relationship with the president and several of the senior managers. Claire was the manager of public affairs and also acted as human resources and office manager. She had the president's ear and was highly attuned to the pulse of the organization. In two years, the company grew from 15 to 100 employees. Claire worked hard and long hours. She travelled and entertained to support marketing efforts. Her efforts made a difference.

The organization became target for a buy-out by a much larger company, and Claire was centrally involved in putting together all of the details for the deal. She worked closely with the merger and acquisition team and found the process to be a tremendous, although exhausting, learning process. When the deal closed, Claire and the president were immediately and unexpectedly dismissed by the buyer.

Claire's background

A high-energy, spirited person, Claire worked her way up from hospitality sales and promotions, then, five years earlier, made the switch into office administration in a fledgling software company. She became involved in putting together a public share offering and got caught up in the energy and glamour of being at the forefront of new technology. When the offer failed and the president stepped down, Claire moved to

another software developer as manager, public affairs, with one of her colleagues who became president.

Together, they built the company and she thoroughly enjoyed the job. They were successful and the company became the target of a friendly merger. However, once the merger process began, she started to discover some weaknesses in the president: he withdrew, and she no longer enjoyed his confidence. She was being isolated also by the employees who may have felt betrayed by the impending merger. Claire was increasingly asked to research and compile information for the due diligence and her contribution was not being acknowledged by the merger and acquisition team. In the end, all members of the team were paid large bonuses—except Claire.

Counsellor's approach

Early sessions with Claire focused on her disillusionment with the high-tech field. Probing the reasons resulted in spirited discussions of everything that was wondrous and exciting about the industry. Claire herself was deeply concerned about why she was so angry when clearly she enjoyed it so much. Claire resisted completing the Valuescards™ and using other tools for two months. Over this period she continued to meet with her counsellor who patiently interviewed her about all aspects of her life and slowly drew out the story of betrayal. Claire was told not to be concerned about not doing her homework, that she would most likely start working with the assessment tools, including the Valuescards™, when she felt ready.

Claire's assessment

One day, Claire called her counsellor with great excitement. She said she had been working with the cards and realized that her former boss (the president) had violated a sacred trust she had in him: he told her several times during the buy-out that she would be recognized and rewarded for her efforts, and in fact he had abandoned her. And, she realized, he abandoned her at the beginning of the process, not at the end when he was also dismissed. Her need for integrity in the relationship had been coldly set aside as he protected his own interests. Claire was holding the relationship precious, and she had not seen the obvious signs. She was dismayed that she had protected and honoured him while he had not reciprocated in kind.

Values summary

Claire completed the values assessment and identified the values most significant for her career satisfaction. Here, we identify six values that were in conflict and have the most impact on her career decision-making.

Claire's values assessment (NATCON session discussion worksheet)

Counsellor insights and areas to explore

The case was read from an handout and the following questions were discussed by the group and the facilitor. What insights and observations can you draw from the information provided? Is there any additional assumptions? Can you identify the themes of personal needs, and are they being met?

Claire's insights, and the strategy she employed

1. Claire's resistance to returning to the high technology field were related to the sense of betrayal by the president of her most recent

Table 1 Values summary: Claire's values assessment

Column C *High impact values*	**Column D** *What the high impact value means to me (expanding the definition)*	**Column E** *Some of the things I do (behaviours, attitudes, beliefs) that support these values*
Moral values Doing work or activities that fit one's moral values	In this situation one's actions and decisions are clear; staff can rely on you and it forces them to step up to the challenge.	Challenge actions, pursue value statements, listen, keep communication flowing, acknowledge others' needs as important
Lifestyle/family Recognizing balance as priority	Allows your life to be fun/ encompassing; brings a needed dimension to the workplace	Create a "homey" office environment; pursue family/ work connection; acknowledge others' "family" as important.
Trust Believing in and supporting a relationship	Creates an environment that fosters creativity, under-standing, respect, power, and growth	Talk, listen, pray, be consistently available to the needs of others
Spirituality Maintaining one's sense of balance and acceptance	Believing in a universal law keeps one humble, and slows you down, keeping love in the foreground.	Acknowledge all religious "events" as universal celebrations; employees who seek guidance are motivated.
Integrity Being honest, standing up for one's own beliefs	Rely on your own judgment leads to stronger intuition, since you always check your value sets.	Walk the Talk! Never cover up one's mistakes. Be a student. Be consistent.
Independence Being trusted to work independently	Creativity flows; decisions are specific; own your actions; develops personal perspective.	Create a working area with a personal statement; open dialogue on projects; do "awesome" work.

employer. Gaining this perspective provided her with the knowledge that she could return to high tech should she so desire.

2. Open acknowledgment of the value of her contribution was her most important workplace need. She focused her energy and worked hard to achieve organizational goals, and wanted her contribution to be recognized as adding value. Claire needed thanks from the beneficiaries of her efforts.
3. Integrity in relationships was important where Claire could experience genuine openness in an environment that was not cut-throat. There would be no more "back-room deals with a different face in the public" for her.
4. Claire had lost touch with her home and family life. The time she needed for her teenage son had to be included in evaluating job offers—reduced travel and no longer working 12-hour days.

Table 2 Values summary: Claire's values assessment

Column F ***What implications do these values have for my work life?***	**Column G** ***My ideal organization values***	**Column H** ***What do I look for/at to uncover a compatible organization?***
I need an environment that doesn't support people who cover up mistakes.	**Ethics** Conduct business ethically	Product/service that has meaning; managers with integrity and backbone; a fit; leaders who speak honestly
I need the love, support, and care that come from my "strong" family environment.	**Respect for individual choices** Choice in balancing personal life and work	Work policies; family company events; compensation for work that affects family
I need the balance of a strong, supportive relationship "Believe in..."	**Honourable** Honesty in employer-employee relationships	A fit, based on intuition; integrity
I need an environment where my beliefs are the core of a successful and fun environment.	**Spirituality** Sensitive to diverse religious and personal beliefs	A pattern in their work, and how it is implemented
I need to work with people who are not parrots, but individuals who make a difference.	**Integrity** Honest, sincere in managing employer-employee relationships	Current employee relations and the impact staff has on decision-making
I need others to "know" that the company is my concern.	**Trust people to act responsibly**	Examples from idea to implementation of the role

Claire's needs

Integrity in the relationship with those she supported, acknowledgment of her contribution—a public and visible thank-you; a balanced home life.

Six months later

Claire started her own business organizing special events for small companies. She establishes a close working relationship with her client—often the owner and manager of the firm—and she can easily see the positive outcome of her efforts. In product launches and other public events, she can see the direct impact of the value she brings to the employees, the organization, and the owner.

She continues to work 12-hour days, however; she has achieved a greater balance by being able to take several days off between assignments. Claire's work in special events is spirited and fun, and that is "why life is worth living."

Note

1. The situations are true, but the name has been changed.

Vers le développement d'un modèle de la réussite lors d'affectations à l'étranger

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Les statistiques :

- *Entre 25 % (Solomon 1994) et 40 % (Tu et Sullivan 1994) des travailleurs étrangers sont rapatriés avant la fin de leur mandat, ce qui coûte à leurs employeurs entre 50 000 et 150 000 dollars.*
- *De quarante à cinquante pour cent des travailleurs qui terminent leur mandat ne sont pas considérés comme suffisamment productifs par leur organisation.*
- *Le critère de sélection d'un travailleur outre-mer est composé à 90 % d'habiletés professionnelles et de compétences techniques (Black et autres 1991).*

Vers le développement d'un modèle de la réussite lors d'affectations à l'étranger

Les organisations étendent leur marché, et les technologies de pointe ainsi que la concurrence mondiale les obligent à envoyer à l'étranger des travailleurs prêts à exécuter des mandats à court, moyen ou long terme. Ces affectations touchent surtout une main-d'oeuvre spécialisée de gestionnaires et de techniciens, et les critères d'arrimage entre les exigences d'un poste et le travailleur tiennent compte presqu'uniquement des qualifications techniques des candidats. Les gages de succès compris dans le savoir-être sont ignorés dans les processus de sélection qui s'appuient surtout sur des curriculum vitæ et des entrevues de sélection souvent stéréotypés.

Une recension d'une centaine d'articles scientifiques puisés dans des banques de données traitant d'études psychologiques et administratives révèle que les facteurs susceptibles d'être des indices de succès lors d'affectations à l'étranger ne sont pas uniquement d'ordre cognitif; ils tiennent compte aussi de l'importance des caractéristiques de la personnalité. Le modèle proposé soutient qu'il existe des prérequis individuels au-delà des compétences professionnelles qui augmentent sensiblement les chances de succès d'affectations à l'étranger : la hardiesse cognitive, l'intelligence émotive et la conscience culturelle. S'ajoutent à ces caractéristiques de la personnalité les expériences antérieures de travail à l'étranger. Après avoir considéré ces prérequis, le modèle se préoccupe des préparatifs avant la mutation à l'étranger, responsabilité de l'individu et de l'organisation, et des attitudes et comportements de ces deux partenaires pendant l'affectation.

Que demande-t-on aux travailleurs? De s'ajuster à de nouvelles tâches, à de nouvelles exigences, de s'engager dans différents rôles autant participatif, évaluatif que décisionnel, en fait de se responsabiliser. Le

construit de hardiesse cognitive développé par Kobasa (1979) se veut une vision globale de la personnalité et regroupe trois composantes : engagement, contrôle, défi. L'engagement signifie qu'une personne considère la vie en général et le travail en particulier comme significatif; elle croit en ses valeurs personnelles, trouve intérêt dans les situations sociales et est capable de se mobiliser, de s'investir dans les activités choisies. Le contrôle se rapproche du contrôle interne tel que décrit par Rotter (1966) : l'individu est en mesure de s'attribuer justement la causalité de ce qui lui arrive, de percevoir la contingence entre sa personnalité, ses caractéristiques personnelles, son comportement et la valeur des renforcements qu'il reçoit et, finalement, d'avoir une certaine influence sur les renforçateurs. Le défi, dernière composante, considère le changement comme un élément stable qui impose un ajustement et il entraîne invariablement un mieux-être. Le défi, c'est une ouverture, une disponibilité au changement. En rassemblant des informations sur elles-mêmes et sur leur environnement, les personnes hardies se sentent en confiance pour intervenir et elles développent un sentiment d'efficacité qui les habilite à passer à l'action. Les études reconnaissent la hardiesse cognitive comme un facteur de motivation dans la résolution de problèmes (Kobasa et autres 1982; Magnani 1990) et elles lui reconnaissent également un pouvoir prédictif en regard de la capacité d'adaptation. Il va sans dire que les personnes hardies sont des travailleurs recherchés autant pour des mandats à l'interne que pour des affectations à l'étranger.

Qu'est-ce que l'intelligence émotive? Elle est caractérisée par cinq attitudes (Goleman 1995). La première consiste à reconnaître une émotion lorsqu'elle survient à être conscient des pensées et des sentiments qu'elle provoque. Reconnaître ses émotions, c'est aussi être capable de les modifier. Les émotions extrêmes déstabilisent l'équilibre émotif. La deuxième attitude est de régulariser ses émotions proportionnellement aux situations vécues afin de traiter adéquatement l'information. Diriger ses émotions vers un but productif est la troisième attitude. Goleman (1995) suggère plusieurs moyens afin de permettre l'utilisation du pouvoir des émotions pour guider nos choix et devenir efficace. Une fois le travail fait sur nos propres émotions, la quatrième attitude ouvre sur la reconnaissance des émotions des autres, et c'est par l'empathie qu'on y accède. Le degré d'efficacité interpersonnelle est proportionnel au degré de reconnaissance des émotions et d'ajustement aux émotions observées, ce qui constitue la dernière attitude de l'intelligence émotive. L'intelligence émotive est donc définie comme étant «l'ensemble des capacités que possède une personne pour reconnaître et maîtriser ses émotions, reconnaître celles des autres et ajuster ses comportements en conséquence, dans le but de vivre les meilleures interactions possibles» (Salovey 1990).

Dans le recensement des habiletés susceptibles d'augmenter la poursuite et le succès d'un mandat au pays ou d'une mutation à l'étranger, les habiletés d'adaptation représentées dans le modèle par la hardiesse cognitive et les habiletés relationnelles, qui prennent dans cette étude la désignation d'intelligence émotive, font consensus (Lee 1994; Clarke et Hammer 1995; Solomon 1994; Arthur et Bennett 1995; Dean et Pipp 1990).

Plus spécifique à l'adaptation à l'étranger, la conscience culturelle et la préparation au départ, d'après Black et autres (1991), sont en relation positive statistiquement significative avec l'adaptation en emploi et la performance professionnelle. Dans des documents de travail, Muniz (1985) présente une hiérarchie de la conscience culturelle. Pour s'intégrer à l'autre culture, qui est le dernier niveau de la hiérarchie, il importe en premier lieu pour la personne de bien connaître ses intérêts, habiletés individuelles et valeurs personnelles afin d'être par la suite en mesure d'effectuer une évaluation honnête sur ses compétences. Certains facteurs cachés doivent être soigneusement examinés : que se dissimule derrière nos allures libérales? Quelle est notre conception du travail, comment nous situons-nous face aux grands débats de société, quelles sont nos positions face à la pauvreté, au sexisme, au racisme, etc.? Ces valeurs souvent voilées teintent nos rapports avec les autres; elles doivent être portées à notre conscience. Avant d'être disponible à la culture des autres, on doit avoir accès à sa propre culture, reconnaître, comprendre et accepter ses composantes géographiques, historiques, sociales, politiques et économiques. La disponibilité à une autre culture passe par l'exposition, dans le pays d'origine, à de multiples cultures; la monoculture ne prédispose pas au détachement et à l'ouverture à l'autre. Flynn rapporte, dans une étude récente (1995), que 35 % de son échantillonnage, composé de gestionnaires en poste à l'étranger, considèrent les habiletés culturelles comme essentielles au succès d'une mutation.

Les études nous apprennent également que les travailleurs qui ont déjà une expérience de travail en dehors de leur pays d'origine sont des candidats mieux disposés et préparés à réussir une deuxième mutation à l'étranger (Black et autres 1991). On suppose qu'ils avaient au départ des habiletés d'adaptation, qu'ils les ont utilisées efficacement et que l'expérience a été évaluée positivement, ce qui les entraîne à récidiver. La hardiesse cognitive, l'intelligence émotive et la conscience culturelle sont des prérequis dans le choix de candidats lors d'affectations à l'étranger, et les individus pourvus de ces caractéristiques ont habituellement tendance à retourner en mission à l'étranger. Ils font d'ailleurs d'excellents candidats.

Avant l'affectation d'une personne à l'étranger, la responsabilité d'évaluer ses compétences professionnelles, ses habiletés relationnelles, sa capacité d'adaptation et sa disponibilité culturelle revient à l'organi-

sation. Toutefois, l'organisation et l'individu doivent, ensemble, évaluer la place que prend ce mandat dans la carrière du travailleur et vérifier si les représentations que les deux parties se font du sens et de l'impact de la mission sur l'avenir professionnel de l'individu coïncident. Accepte-t-on une mutation à l'étranger pour faire plus d'argent? Est-ce pour grimper dans la hiérarchie de l'organisation? Désire-t-on élargir son champ de compétence? Des travailleurs ayant accepté une affectation à l'étranger disent ne pas faire fortune, mais ils mettent davantage d'argent de côté. Une étude de l'Organization Resources Counselors (ORC) publiée en août 1995 rapporte que seulement 4 % des employés obtiennent un poste plus élevé au retour d'un poste à l'étranger. Par contre, Loeb (1995) croit que compte tenu de la mondialisation, l'acceptation d'une mutation à l'étranger est un ticket indispensable pour un avancement rapide et que le travailleur a intérêt à solliciter ces mandats hors du pays.

Avant l'affectation, c'est aussi un moment privilégié pour parler des attentes du travailleur et de l'organisation, des conditions inhérentes aux tâches, de la longueur de l'engagement, du contrat et du salaire. On discutera également des conditions de rapatriement car une des premières préoccupationd des travailleurs outre-mer demeure les conditions qui faciliteront leur retour au pays. Le choc culturel est vécu aussi intensément au retour au pays qu'à l'arrivée en mission à l'étranger.

Condition *sine qua non* à la réussite de toute affectation : la préparation au départ dont la responsabilité incombe à l'organisation. En plus d'une sensibilisation à la langue, aux coutumes et aux tâches, l'implication du conjoint et de la famille est primordiale. En effet, le noyau familial prend beaucoup d'importance pour le travailleur, il assure la continuité, la sécurité affective. Symboliquement, la famille représente l'enclave où le travailleur retrouvera les valeurs fondamentales indispensables à son équilibre psychologique. Il importe de veiller sur les motivations du conjoint et des enfants et de les préparer adéquatement à vivre un épisode de vie fort différent, rempli d'imprévus et de richesses. Le conjoint ou la conjointe, car habituellement ce sont les femmes qui accompagnent leur époux, est la personne la plus susceptible de vivre des problèmes d'adaptation. Le travailleur, malgré des changements culturels considérables, effectue un travail relativement connu; la langue de travail est souvent la même et les objectifs qu'il poursuit sont connus. Les enfants poursuivent leurs études mais il y a peu de continuité pour la conjointe. Finies les habitudes de banlieue; l'intendance domestique quotidienne prend des proportions insoupçonnées et tout doit être réappris : langue de commerce, produits alimentaires, habitudes de cuisine, etc. La solitude et l'isolement la guettent sournoisement et, dès son arrivée en sol étranger, elle devra se construire un réseau d'échange, de partage et s'engager dans des activités extérieures à la vie domestique.

Après les sessions de préparation au départ, déjà le pronostic de réussite est bien enclenché. Pendant l'affectation, plusieurs facteurs rattachés autant à l'organisation qu'à l'individu viennent maximiser les possibilités de succès. On s'attend de la part de l'organisation à ce qu'elle spécifie clairement ses attentes par rapport à la mission du travailleur et à ce qu'elle lui fasse part des visions organisationnelles. Ouvert aux objectifs que poursuivent les opérations, le gestionnaire sera en mesure de situer son travail dans l'ensemble des visions de l'entreprise et aura le sentiment non pas de travailler à la pièce, mais d'être un maillon indispensable à un projet, d'être le maître d'oeuvre d'une réalisation collective. Cet état d'esprit devant animer tout travailleur à l'étranger n'est pas le fait du hasard mais bien le résultat d'une formation et d'un encadrement qui stimulent et soutiennent les efforts déployés dans l'exercice de la mission. Parmi les modalités incitant l'employé à s'investir, le jumelage à un travailleur aborigène s'avère fort efficace. L'apprentissage se fait par «modeling» et ce jumelage permet une insertion rapide. L'organisation devient l'identité personnelle et professionnelle de l'individu oeuvrant à l'étranger et c'est par cette avenue qu'il ou elle établira un nouveau réseau de relations professionnelles et personnelles. Outre-mer, les étrangers ont tendance à se regrouper entre eux : l'éloignement de la mère patrie, l'ennui, le statut temporaire du séjour, les difficultés d'adaptation rapprochent les travailleurs étrangers qui partagent la lourdeur d'un mandat et le caractère provisoire de leur séjour. L'organisation joue un rôle d'agent de liaison en facilitant la rencontre de travailleurs internationaux.

Afin de réussir son affectation à l'étranger, le travailleur doit aussi y mettre du sien. Compte tenu des différences culturelles, le travailleur doit réévaluer ses normes de performance. Les indigènes ont souvent une relation avec le temps fort différente et le rythme nord-américain, surtout celui des métropoles, ne convient pas à toutes les sociétés. La patience s'avère une vertu à redécouvrir. La tolérance de la différence doit aussi faire partie des qualités à cultiver. Chaque société a développé des savoir-faire et des savoir-être totalement différents, et l'évaluation des résultats passe par des critères distincts. Les qualités relationnelles du travailleur l'aideront à exprimer la différence et à trouver des compromis à la satisfaction des exigences organisationnelles dans le respect de la culture locale.

Avant le départ, la préparation de la famille et du conjoint ou de la conjointe est apparue comme un élément clé du succès d'une affectation, et il va sans dire qu'une fois à l'outre-mer, la famille prend toute son importance. Le système familial infère à la mission à l'étranger un caractère affectif inéluctable. La famille et ses membres doivent apprendre autant à vivre seuls qu'à briser la solitude. Dans tous ces apprentissages, le travailleur ainsi que les autres membres du noyau familial devront

veiller à être attentifs aux influences culturelles auxquelles ils sont exposés qui, sans contredit, auront un impact sur la dynamique du système familial toujours en mouvement.

Les variables organisationnelles ainsi que les facteurs individuels doivent être considérés dans l'élaboration d'un modèle visant la réussite des affectations à l'étranger. Le modèle proposé est en gestation et il apparaît clairement que plusieurs des facteurs de réussite à l'étranger ou au pays se chevauchent. L'originalité de cette présentation tient au fait que les prérequis aient été regroupés sous trois construits mesurables, soit la hardiesse cognitive, l'intelligence émotive et la conscience culturelle—l'opérationalisation de ce modèle en sera d'autant facilitée. L'accent est également mis sur l'impact du conjoint ou de la conjointe et de la famille. Cet apport affectif lors d'une mutation à l'étranger mérite d'être abordé avec beaucoup de considération, et les futures études devraient y porter une attention particulière. Malgré les imperfections de ce modèle, l'opérationaliser permettrait de valider certaines variables et sans doute de palier à ses défectuosités.

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Vers un modèle explicatif des conflits travail-famille

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Introduction

L'accroissement des femmes sur le marché du travail et le maintien de leur rôle traditionnel a suscité un bon nombre d'études sur les conflits travail-famille. Ce concept est associé à l'hypothèse de déficit qui stipule que les individus disposent d'une certaine quantité de temps et d'énergie et que chaque rôle exercé en requiert une partie (Goode 1960). Ainsi, quand les individus s'impliquent dans des rôles multiples, les rôles tendent à drainer leur énergie et à causer des conflits interrôles (Marks 1977).

En contraste avec cette vision traditionnelle, une seconde hypothèse, appelée hypothèse d'accroissement, propose que l'accumulation de rôles mène à l'épanouissement personnel (Marks 1977). Empiriquement, cette deuxième hypothèse obtient le plus d'appuis. Cependant, en raison des multiples failles méthodologiques et théoriques, ces résultats sont peu concluants. La principale critique vient du fait que ces deux hypothèses ne considèrent que le nombre de rôles occupés et non les caractéristiques de ces derniers (Baruch et autres 1987).

Aryee (1992) souligne que la majorité des études sur les conflits travail-famille n'examine pas les effets du travail sur les divers rôles familiaux. Puisque les rôles exercés par une personne diffèrent quant aux attentes et aux comportements, un conflit travail-conjoint, par exemple, devrait avoir des antécédents et des conséquences distincts d'un conflit travail-loisirs. Selon Lambert (1990), l'étude de la relation entre le travail et la famille nécessite aussi de tenir compte des différences de genre en raison du processus de socialisation. Il serait important d'examiner si les hommes et les femmes réagissent de la même façon lorsqu'ils sont placés dans des conditions similaires plutôt que de présumer qu'ils réagissent différemment et qu'ils doivent être étudiés de façon séparée. Feldberg et Glenn (1979) font remarquer que dans les écrits, les réactions des hommes face à leur travail sont habituellement expliquées par les caractéristiques du travail alors que celles des femmes sont généralement expliquées par des caractéristiques personnelles ou de la vie familiale. Un modèle combinant ces deux visions pourrait s'avérer efficient dans la prédiction de la santé mentale (Amaro et autres 1987).

Antécédents des conflits travail-famille

L'ampleur des conflits travail-famille dépend essentiellement de trois facteurs : les caractéristiques de l'individu, du travail et de la famille. Parmi les principales caractéristiques de l'individu, on relève le genre, l'importance accordée aux divers rôles dans la vie et le stade de carrière. Des études révèlent que les femmes ont plus de difficultés que les hommes à concilier les exigences du travail avec celles de la famille

car elles assument la responsabilité première de la vie familiale (Wiersma 1990). Cependant, quand les hommes endossent les mêmes responsabilités familiales, ils semblent vivre les mêmes difficultés (Loerch et autres 1989). Les femmes seraient toutefois davantage susceptibles de vivre des conflits en raison de la simultanéité de leurs rôles et parce que de hautes aspirations de carrière vont à l'encontre des normes sociales du rôle féminin (Holahan et Gilbert 1979).

La nature des attentes personnelles vis-à-vis des rôles est une importante source de stress pour la personne ayant des engagements multiples. L'importance accordée à un rôle peut exacerber les conflits travail-famille. Le désir d'y réussir peut amener l'individu à lui consacrer plus de temps et d'énergie, voire même à négliger ses autres rôles. Selon Aryee (1992), la vulnérabilité au stress est amplifiée quand un individu accorde une grande importance à plusieurs rôles. L'importance du travail dépend du stade de carrière ou de vie. Il est généralement plus significatif au début des stades adultes, alors que la famille devient un environnement saillant plus tard dans la vie. Dans son modèle de développement de carrière, Super (1957) propose quatre stades : l'exploration, l'établissement, le maintien et le désengagement. Contrairement à d'autres modèles, les stades ne sont pas déterminés par l'âge, mais par les circonstances. Ainsi, les individus peuvent se recycler à travers ceux-ci quand un changement majeur se produit. Ce modèle est lié aux attitudes à l'égard du travail (Ornstein et autres 1989), mais Ornstein et Isabella (1990) observent qu'il ne s'applique pas de la même façon aux femmes professionnelles qu'aux hommes.

Parmi les caractéristiques du travail, le nombre d'heures de travail par semaine (incluant le nombre et la fréquence des heures supplémentaires) ainsi que l'inflexibilité de l'horaire affectent le temps disponible pour répondre aux demandes familiales et peuvent occasionner des conflits travail-famille (Pleck et autres 1980). Aussi, plusieurs études (ex. Jones et Butler 1980) identifient la surcharge, l'ambiguïté et le conflit de rôle comme des sources importantes de conflits travail-famille. Des recensions montrent également que l'ambiguïté et le conflit de rôle détériorent la satisfaction au travail et accroissent le niveau de détresse (ex. Fisher et Gitelson 1983).

Dans le domaine familial, Burke (1988) observe que les personnes mariées vivent plus de conflits travail-famille que les célibataires. D'autres auteurs (Pleck et autres 1980) notent également que les demandes parentales (nombre et âge des enfants) et l'implication du conjoint au travail leur sont également associées. En effet, les conjoints qui font de longues heures de travail sont moins disponibles pour aider à la maison. Cependant, l'influence de la carrière des femmes sur les conflits de leur conjoint est moins bien définie. Wiersma et van der

Berg (1991) observent que les hommes dont la conjointe travaille ont plus de responsabilités familiales, mais ne diffèrent pas au niveau des conflits interrôles. Toutefois, l'étude de Greenhaus et Kopelman (1981) démontre que les maris de femmes professionnelles vivent plus de conflits travail-famille. On pourrait supposer que les longues heures travaillées par les professionnelles créent des pressions pour que leur conjoint participe aux activités familiales lequel, en retour, peut vivre des conflits avec ses responsabilités au travail (Greenhaus et Beutell 1985). Enfin, Holahan et Gilbert (1979) trouvent que les conflits sont moindres lorsque les deux conjoints accordent beaucoup d'importance à leur travail. Les couples hautement engagés au plan professionnel pourraient évoluer dans un système de compréhension mutuelle et d'accommodation.

Le conflit dans la famille est également lié aux conflits travail-famille (Kopelman et autres 1983). Les désaccords entre conjoints concernant les rôles familiaux (Chadwick et autres 1976) et leurs divergences sur les attitudes à l'égard du statut d'emploi de la femme peuvent ajouter à la tension familiale (Eiswirth-Neems et Handal 1978). Un meilleur climat familial, chez les hommes, est associé à moins de temps libre passé à faire des activités reliées à leur carrière alors que pour les femmes, il est relié à plus de temps libre consacré à socialiser avec des amis et à moins de temps libre passé à faire des travaux domestiques (Wiersma et van der Berg 1991). Enfin, des auteurs (Pleck et autres 1980) observent que le conflit familial est associé négativement à la satisfaction maritale.

Conséquences des conflits travail-famille

De nombreuses études démontrent les effets négatifs des conflits travail-famille sur le bien-être. Des liens négatifs sont observés entre les conflits travail-famille et plusieurs composantes de la qualité de vie telles que la satisfaction au travail, la satisfaction maritale, la satisfaction de vie, la santé physique et mentale (ex. Burke 1988; Jones et Butler 1980). Des auteurs trouvent également une relation positive entre la satisfaction maritale et la satisfaction de vie. Et malgré les controverses, plusieurs études démontrent les effets positifs de la satisfaction au travail sur la satisfaction de vie ou le bien-être des individus (ex. Bedeian et autres 1988).

L'étude qui suit avait pour but d'examiner les différences entre les hommes et les femmes et de vérifier la pertinence de les étudier de façon séparée.

Méthode

Procédure

Les sujets ont été recrutés dans le cadre d'un projet plus vaste portant sur les conflits entre le travail et la vie familiale. Les données ont été amassées à l'aide d'un questionnaire envoyé par la poste d'une durée approximative de 60 minutes. Trois critères de sélection ont été considérés : avoir plus de 18 ans, travailler un minimum de 17,5 heures par semaine et vivre en couple depuis au moins six mois.

Sujets

L'échantillon comprend 71 hommes et 71 femmes appariés sur le plan de l'âge et de l'occupation. L'âge moyen se situe à 37,8 ans (s = 7,5) et les postes occupés se distribuent comme suit : professionnels et personnel de direction (75 %), personnel de soins infirmiers (13 %), personnel de bureau (7 %) et personnel de métier et de services techniques (5 %). L'équivalence des hommes et des femmes sur le plan de plusieurs autres variables sociodémographiques (niveau de scolarité, nombre d'enfants, ancienneté, nombre d'heures de travail par semaine, revenu personnel brut) est également observée. Cependant, au niveau des activités, les femmes consacrent plus d'heures aux tâches ménagères alors que les hommes en consacrent davantage aux travaux autour de la maison et aux loisirs. Sur semaine, les femmes passent plus de temps à prodiguer des soins aux enfants mais n'en passent pas plus que les hommes pendant la fin de semaine.

Instruments

La majorité des instruments retenus ont déjà fait l'objet d'une validation en langue française et démontrent des propriétés psychométriques fort satisfaisantes : l'inventaire des préoccupations de carrière chez l'adulte (Gingras et autres 1995), l'échelle d'ajustement dyadique, (Baillargeon et autres 1986) l'échelle de satisfaction de vie (Blais et autres 1989), l'échelle de satisfaction globale au travail (Blais et autres 1991), et l'indice de détresse psychologique de l'Enquête Santé Québec (Préville et autres 1992).

Suivant les recommandations de Vallerand (1989) à propos de la validation transculturelle, plusieurs échelles ont été traduites en français

à l'aide de la procédure de traduction parallèle inversée: le *Work Spillover Scale* (Small et Riley 1990), le *Life Role Salience Scale* (Amatea et autres 1986), le *Role Conflict and Ambiguity Scale* (Rizzo et autres 1970), et les items de surcharge de travail proposés par Beehr et autres (1976) et par Bacharach et autres (1990). Enfin, les répondants ont été interrogés sur l'inflexibilité de leur horaire de travail et de celle de leur conjoint, ainsi que sur la fréquence de certains problèmes de santé survenus au cours du dernier mois.

Résultats

Les scores des sujets masculins ont été comparés à ceux des sujets féminins pour l'ensemble des mesures. Très peu de différences ont été relevées (tableau 1 à la page suivante). Les femmes obtiennent des scores supérieurs sur l'échelle conflit travail-ménage, les problèmes de santé et l'indice de détresse psychologique. Comparativement aux hommes, les femmes considèrent que leur conjoint accorde plus d'importance à leur travail (valorisation et implication) et que leur horaire est plus flexible.

Les sujets féminins se distinguent des sujets masculins au niveau des patrons de corrélations entre les échelles (tableau 2 à la page 282). Contrairement aux femmes, il y a des liens entre les préoccupations de carrière des hommes et les conflits travail-conjoint, travail-enfant et travail-loisirs. Pour les femmes, l'implication dans le rôle de travailleur est associée à plusieurs types de conflits travail-famille. Un seul lien est commun aux hommes et aux femmes : moins ils sont impliqués dans le rôle de responsable de la maison, plus ils rapportent de conflits travail-ménage. Pour les hommes, plus le nombre d'heures travaillées est élevé, plus ils rapportent ce type de conflit. De façon surprenante, ce lien n'est pas significatif chez les femmes. Pour elles, c'est l'inflexibilité de l'horaire du conjoint qui est associée au conflit travail-ménage. L'ambiguïté de rôle et la surcharge de travail sont également reliées à plusieurs types de conflits. Toutefois, ce n'est que chez les femmes où l'on observe un lien entre, d'une part, le conflit de rôle, l'inflexibilité de l'horaire et le nombre d'heures de travail et, d'autre part, les conflits travail-conjoint et travail-enfant.

Les conflits travail-famille ne sont pas reliés à la satisfaction maritale. Chez les femmes, ils sont toutefois associés à la satisfaction au travail, à la satisfaction de vie et aux problèmes de santé physique. Les conflits travail-conjoint et travail-enfant sont liés à la détresse psychologique des hommes et des femmes. Le lien entre les conflits travail-ménage et la détresse psychologique se retrouve seulement chez les femmes.

Tableau 1 Coefficients alpha et comparaison de moyennes entre les femmes et les hommes pour l'ensemble des mesures

Variables		Femmes		Hommes			
	Alpha	X	s	X	s	t	dl
Préoccupations de carrière							
- Exploration	.94	2.66	1.02	2.55	0.99	0.67	140
- Établissement	.93	3.30	0.97	3.11	0.95	1.22	140
- Maintien	.92	3.37	0.83	3.25	0.90	0.86	140
- Désengagement	.91	2.81	0.87	2.56	0.86	1.69	140
"Life Role Salience Scale"							
Valorisation dans le rôle							
- Travailleur	.76	19.34	3.58	19.65	4.26	-0.47	140
- Parent	.85	21.55	4.24	20.39	5.43	1.42	139
- Conjoint	.84	19.46	4.59	19.28	4.39	0.24	140
- Responsable de la maison	.81	19.25	4.49	20.52	3.38	-1.90	140
- Travailleur (Conjoint)	.77	19.28	4.11	17.46	3.96	2.68 **	140
Implication dans le rôle							
- Travailleur	.86	15.66	4.58	16.90	5.35	-1.48	140
- Parent	.85	20.13	3.88	19.63	5.33	0.63	126
- Conjoint	.73	20.01	3.94	20.73	3.12	-1.20	140
- Responsable de la maison	.84	18.58	5.10	19.48	4.07	-1.16	133
- Travailleur (Conjoint)	.89	17.21	5.48	14.79	5.00	2.75 **	140
Inflexibilité de l'horaire							
- Répondant	.88	2.84	1.05	2.79	0.93	0.32	140
- Conjoint	.84	2.99	0.98	3.33	0.77	-2.20 *	123
Attitudes à l'égard du travail							
- Ambiguïté de rôle	.81	2.90	1.11	2.76	1.02	0.77	140
- Conflit de rôle	.73	4.00	1.13	3.82	1.07	0.95	140
- Surcharge de travail	.82	4.23	1.40	4.03	1.29	0.89	140
"Work Spillover Scale"							
- Conflit travail-conjoint	.69	2.77	0.93	2.76	0.77	0.08	140
- Conflit travail-enfant	.79	2.51	1.02	2.54	0.87	-0.11	92
- Conflit travail-loisirs	.83	2.86	1.15	2.65	0.90	1.23	131
- Conflit travail-ménage	.75	3.06	0.85	2.58	0.89	3.29 ***	139
Ajustement dyadique							
- Consensus	.92	47.91	10.25	45.49	10.74	1.38	140
- Cohésion	.81	15.34	4.56	15.87	3.79	-0.76	136
- Expression affective	.69	8.10	2.82	7.21	2.60	1.96	140
- Satisfaction	.89	37.81	6.96	36.72	6.89	0.93	140
Satisfaction au travail	.85	23.65	7.04	24.04	6.61	-0.34	140
Satisfaction de vie	.87	24.45	6.27	25.41	6.30	-0.91	140
Détresse psychologique	.91	33.87	22.51	25.55	16.00	2.54 *	126
Problèmes de santé physique	.77	1.72	0.50	1.48	0.35	3.26 ***	126

Note. Les degrés de liberté sont ajustés pour tenir compte de l'inégalité des variances.

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

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Tableau 2 Corrélations pour les femmes et les hommes entre plusieurs variables et les différents types de conflits travail-famille

Variables	Femmes				Hommes			
	Conflits travail/				Conflits travail/			
	Conjoint	Enfant	Loisirs	Ménage	Conjoint	Enfant	Loisirs	Ménage
Préoccupations de carrière								
- Exploration	.09	.18	.03	.12	.30 *	.26	.23	.08
- Établissement	-.01	.06	-.06	.13	.39 ***	.39 **	.28 *	.11
- Maintien	-.16	-.22	-.10	.01	.42 ***	.46 ***	.29 *	.20
- Désengagement	.03	.07	.10	.12	.44 ***	.57 ***	.38 **	.12
"Life Role Salience Scale"								
Valorisation dans le rôle								
- Travailleur	-.21	-.40 **	-.15	-.11	.10	.13	.20	.12
- Parent	-.11	-.31 *	-.14	.05	.16	.05	.23	.12
- Conjoint	-.06	.05	.06	-.08	.10	.04	.00	-.16
- Responsable de la maison	-.14	-.17	-.01	-.18	.08	-.14	-.10	-.06
- Travailleur (Conjoint)	-.18	-.19	-.11	.06	-.05	.03	.10	.07
Implication dans le rôle								
- Travailleur	-.25 *	-.45 **	-.22	-.24 *	.23	.09	.23	.18
- Parent	-.09	-.21	-.21	.02	-.07	-.15	-.03	-.06
- Conjoint	-.04	.00	-.09	-.01	.06	-.02	-.10	.00
- Responsable de la maison	-.13	-.13	.02	-.33 **	.05	.06	-.20	-.27 *
- Travailleur (Conjoint)	-.25 *	-.28	-.19	-.10	-.06	.00	.13	.02
Nombre d'heures de travail								
- Répondant	.24 *	.30 *	.31 **	.17	.12	.02	.28 *	.36 **
- Conjoint	-.09	.06	.15	-.05	.05	.06	.05	.10
Inflexibilité de l'horaire								
- Répondant	.29 *	.39 **	.23	.25 *	-.03	.05	-.06	.03
- Conjoint	.26 *	.45 **	.22	.41 ***	.26 *	-.34 *	-.06	.09
Attitudes à l'égard du travail								
- Ambiguïté de rôle	.32 **	.31 *	.27 *	.31 **	.30 *	.24	.31 **	.31 **
- Conflit de rôle	.37 **	.41 **	.23	.28 *	.20	.23	.18	.17
- Surcharge de travail	.43 ***	.18	.39 ***	.25 *	.24 *	.32 *	.21	.27 *
Nombre d'enfants	-.02	.21	.06	.13	-.07	-.08	-.11	-.01
Ajustement dyadique								
- Consensus	-.33 **	-.29 *	-.30 *	-.30 *	-.07	-.12	-.04	-.18
- Cohésion	-.27 *	-.25	-.21	-.29 *	-.08	-.04	-.06	-.08
- Expression affective	-.24 *	-.28	-.29 *	-.19	.01	.06	-.04	-.17
- Satisfaction	-.19	-.13	-.10	-.18	.02	.00	.05	-.07
Satisfaction au travail	-.42 ***	-.43 **	-.25 *	-.41 ***	-.20	-.24	.01	.00
Satisfaction de vie	-.35 **	-.42 **	-.29 *	-.29 *	-.03	-.07	-.11	-.06
Détresse psychologique	.40 ***	.57 ***	.22	.33 **	.45 ***	.48 ***	.21	.17
Problèmes de santé physique	.44 ***	.57 ***	.23 *	.35 **	.17	.21	-.02	.05

Note Les tests de signification présentés sont bicaudaux

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Discussion

Cette étude constitue une première étape vers la validation d'un modèle explicatif des conflits travail-famille. Malgré le peu de différences de genre relevées au niveau des scores moyens, il demeure pertinent de procéder à l'étude séparée des hommes et des femmes vu les différences décelées dans les patrons de corrélations entre les variables. Cette étude est originale à plusieurs égards. Elle s'intéresse aux conflits travail-famille tant chez les hommes que chez les femmes. Grâce à la procédure d'appariement, elle contrôle l'effet de deux variables fort pertinentes : l'âge et l'occupation. En outre, elle possède l'avantage d'envisager les effets du travail sur les divers rôles familiaux en plus de considérer des indicateurs positif et négatif du bien-être. Enfin, elle intègre des caractéristiques personnelles, du travail et de la vie familiale. Les principales limites de l'étude viennent du nombre élevé de tests effectués auprès des mêmes sujets, de sa nature transversale et de la taille de l'échantillon. Enfin, l'échantillon est surtout composé de professionnels et de cadres et il faut noter une sous-représentation de certains groupes d'âge.

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